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ABSTRACT

"Cross Currents" is a biannual journal (first published in 1972) contributing to the interdisciplinary exchange of ideas within the areas of communication, language skills acquisition and instruction, and cross-cultural training and learning. It is especially receptive to articles on: (1) language teaching and learning, especially regarding English as a Second/Foreign Language and English as an International Language; (2) Language teaching and learning as they apply to the situation in Japan; and (3) Cross-cultural communication issues. "Cross Currents" strives to publish articles concerned with teaching methodologies, techniques, and issues that are multicultural rather than culture-specific. An effort is made to balance abstract and theoretical articles with articles directly applicable to the classroom. Short practical articles are featured in a "Bright Ideas" section. (WTB)

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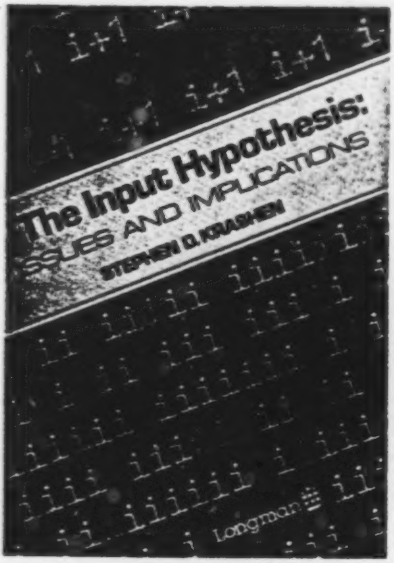
The Input Hypothesis:
ISSUES AND IMPLICATIONS
STEPHEN D. KRASHEN



In this book Stephen Krashen explains the Input Hypothesis, which is the central part of his well-known theory of second-language acquisition. His theory claims that we acquire language in an amazingly simple way — when we understand messages. The five messages which are basic to the theory include the Acquisition/Learning Hypothesis, the Natural Order Hypothesis, the Monitor Hypothesis, the Affective Filter Hypothesis, and the Input Hypothesis.

The book's three chapters review the evidence that supports the Input Hypothesis, put forward current questions and challenges and, after assessing its implications, sketch some applications of the Input Hypothesis to a variety of teaching situations.

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ABOUT *CROSS CURRENTS*

Cross Currents is a biannual journal published by the Language Institute of Japan in an effort to contribute to an interdisciplinary exchange of ideas within the areas of communication, language skills acquisition and instruction, and cross-cultural training and learning. We are especially interested in articles on: 1) Language teaching and learning, especially regarding English as a Second/Foreign Language and English as an International Language; 2) Language teaching and learning as they apply to the situation in Japan; and 3) Cross-cultural communication issues. We also welcome reviews of recently published books in these areas.

Cross Currents was first published in 1972 with an emphasis on Japan and Japanese students of English. In order to serve the needs of our growing international readership better, we strive to publish articles concerned with teaching methodologies, techniques, and general issues which are multicultural rather than culture-specific. While articles demonstrating solid and thoughtful research are greatly appreciated, always kept in mind is the necessity for readability and practicality for our readers, the classroom teachers. We make every effort to balance abstract and theoretical articles with articles directly applicable to the classroom. Short practical articles are featured in our Bright Ideas section.

* * *

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Summaries of the Articles

A Review of Cognitive Styles of Learning and Their Applications in TESOL

Cathy Duppenthaler

Cognitive style is a term used to describe differences in the way in which we perceive, analyze, and recall experiences. Within this theoretical framework, the five best researched cognitive styles include skeletonization and embroidery, tolerance and intolerance of ambiguity, broad and narrow category width, reflectivity and impulsivity, and field dependence and independence. A familiarity with these five styles will give teachers more insight into students' behavior and provide for more effective teaching strategies in the classroom.

The Progressive Form: Grammar in ESL Learning

Roger J. Davies

The progressive form in English is both more complicated and more useful than we may be leading our students to believe. Several approaches to teaching the progressive are examined and the author concludes that too often students learn only that the progressive is used to express an activity in progress at the moment of speaking. Several other instances of the progressive form in English are presented and the notion of "imperfectivity" is used to link these together. The author concludes that these various uses of the progressive can be taught if the notion of imperfectivity is presented to the students.

Guidelines for Teaching the English Article System

Seth Lindstromberg

Native speakers of languages which have no formal article system often have difficulty learning to use English articles correctly. In this article, the author suggests that one major reason for the persistence of this problem is that teachers use incomprehensible terminology in describing the use of articles. The author argues that articles can and should be taught, and offers a flow chart of article-use to assist lesson planning. This flow chart analyzes the system according to speech act and presupposition, and is accompanied by a sample exercise.

Using Rock and Popular Music in EFL

N. McBeath

It is no secret that rock and popular music from English-speaking countries have become increasingly popular in the last twenty years among school-age EFL students. With advances in electronics and worldwide tape distribution systems, this music is more accessible than ever. The author argues that rock and popular music can be used in the EFL classroom to stimulate interest among students and to teach vocabulary, idioms, and grammatical patterns. Suggestions are offered for using this music in the classroom.

Bright Ideas

Maintaining Conversations with Open Questions

Marsha Chan and Kathryn Underdal

EFL/ESL students often have difficulty maintaining conversations with native speakers. When conversing, their questions can seem more like an interrogation than a conversation. One reason for this might be inappropriate questioning strategies. Learning to ask "open questions" helps them actively involve their conversation partner. In this Bright Idea, the authors present a definition of open questions, their function in a conversation, and practical suggestions and exercises for teaching students to identify and use them.

Sports Special

Putting English on the Ball: A Collection of Sports-Related EFL/ESL Exercises

Using sports can enhance lessons by making them more interesting to students. In this special section, *Cross Currents* is happy to present a series of sporting EFL/ESL exercises.

Teaching Language through Sports

Keith Maurice

Language learners generally appreciate and respond well to an environment that stimulates and challenges but which is at the same time non-threatening. Introducing friendly competition into the classroom through sports is one way to achieve this goal. The sporting element is used directly in "The Comparisons Tournament" and "Communication Baseball," two games which combine a language focus with the fun of athletic contests. The first game uses individual competition to focus on comparing and prediction. The second game uses team competition for listening comprehension and quick response activities.

Conversational Sports

Beverley Curran and Steve Mierzejewski

The element of playful competition is incorporated into the language learning process in these sporting events which aim at building fluency and accuracy in a relaxed atmosphere. "Conversational Volleyball" was devised for students with good English ability who are reluctant to use this ability in group settings. "Conversational Tennis" helps students improve their fluency through one-on-one conversations and also increases their awareness of conversational strategies. Here are also some suggestions for using "Communication Baseball" (as described by Keith Maurice) with certain variations to encourage accuracy in basic and lower intermediate students.

Rod Baseball

Francis Bailey and Paul Lehnert

In this last activity, the focus is switched from conversation and competition to grammar. Cuisinaire rods are used to set up a baseball diamond and to represent players. Various situations are then played out giving the students an opportunity to use modals of responsibility (could, must, should, might) and conditionals.

ABOUT THIS ISSUE

This year, we here at *Cross Currents* have noticed a definite increase in the number of subscribers from outside Japan and the United States. *Cross Currents* is being read in teacher training programs, English language institutes, and libraries in Southeast Asia, Africa, the Middle East, Europe, Australia, Latin America and Canada. We would like to welcome our new readers and renew our commitment to serving the international "community" of classroom language teachers.

A special constituency of regular readers of and contributors to *Cross Currents* is individual teachers who have no community of teachers near them with whom to share ideas about language teaching and cross-cultural communication. Teachers in this situation who contribute to *Cross Currents* often have no one to critique their ideas and manuscripts before sending them on to us. Some contributors even have problems finding access to a typewriter to type their manuscripts. The editorial board of *Cross Currents* is aware of the special problems faced by such contributors. Some of the articles in this issue have been written by teachers in such circumstances. We would like to thank them for their hard work and patience in answering our questions and making revisions as we prepared their manuscripts for publication. We would also like to encourage others who are teaching languages or representing a foreign culture without a community of colleagues nearby to contribute their ideas to *Cross Currents.* By hearing from you we can better serve our readers.

On that note, we would like to announce a Call for Papers for our next issue. We are preparing a collection of short two-to-three page sketches concerning teaching and/or cross-cultural experiences of teachers who have worked or are working in developing countries. We have already received several interesting sketches and are hoping to hear from those of you who have your own stories to tell. October 15, 1986 is the deadline for submission of manuscripts.

Our lead article this issue, "A Review of Cognitive Styles of Learning and Their Applications in TESOL," by Cathy Duppenthaler will be of special interest to those teachers who are interested in individualizing their teaching strategies to match students' learning styles. Recent research in the area of perception and learning has shown that people perceive and therefore understand and learn differently. Duppenthaler outlines the major cognitive styles of learning and suggests that a teaching methodology is more than just a philosophy of teaching–it must also include an understanding of the different learning processes.

This issue also includes two articles which discuss points in English grammar which are often very frustrating to try to teach: the many meanings of the progressive form and the article system. Roger J. Davies in, "The Progressive Form: Grammar in ESL Learning," argues that the progressive is a very misunderstood tense both among teachers and students. Seth Lindstromberg in, "Guidelines for Teaching the English Article System," laments that rather than teaching the system most teachers neglect it and hope that the students will pick it up on their own (something that rarely happens). Interestingly, both authors argue that only by breaking these grammatical systems down and presenting them within a situational syllabus whereby attention is paid to meaning rather than form can we effectively teach them. Suggestions for developing lessons are offered in both articles.

In "Using Rock and Popular Music in EFL," Flight Lieutenant N. McBeath argues that using current songs can be a more successful way to teach vocabulary, idioms, and grammar than using outdated folk songs or specially prepared songs which accompany ESL/EFL texts. Interest is easy to maintain because of the high level of exposure most ESL/EFL students have to such songs via radio and internationally distributed videos, movies, records, and cassettes. McBeath offers some suggestions for using this music in the classroom.

Using games to increase student interest in learning languages has received quite a lot of attention recently in ESL/EFL literature. We are happy to include in our Bright Ideas section a collection of three short practical articles with the theme of sporting games: "Teaching Languages through Sports," by Keith Maurice; "Conversational Sports," by Beverley Curran and Steve Mierzejewski; and "Rod Baseball," by Francis Bailey and Paul Lehnert. Also included in this section is a series of lesson plans, contributed by Marsha Chan and Kathryn Underdal, aimed at teaching ESL/EFL students the art of "Maintaining Conversations with Open Questions."

We have two book reviews this issue. Steve Mierzejewski reviews Stephen Krashen's controversial book, *The Input Hypothesis: Issues and Implications*, and Michael Lazarin looks at the text, *Basics in Listening*, by Hiroshi Asano, Munetsugu Uruno, and Michael Rost.

This issue will be the last for our Consulting Editor, Laura A. Mayer. There have been few sole editors of *Cross Currents* in its thirteen-year history, due mostly to the fact that this position is in addition to regular teaching duties here at the Language Institute of Japan. We would like to take this opportunity to thank Laura for the many hours she dedicated to the journal as sole editor for three issues and for all the help she has given us as consulting editor on this issue. Laura's dedication to *Cross Currents* has been an inspiration to all of us.

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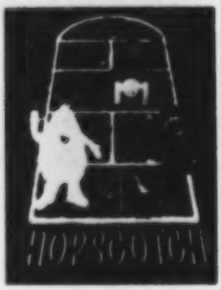

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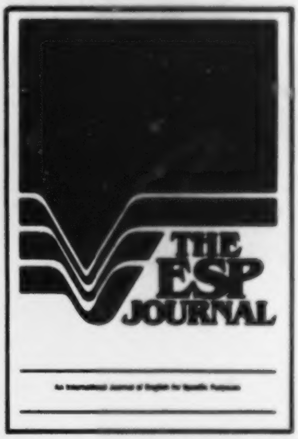

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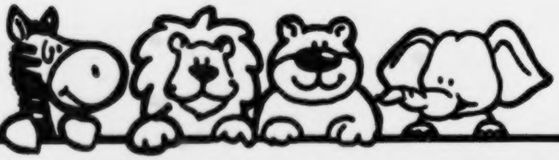

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Cross Currents
Vol. XIII, No. 1
Fall/Winter 1986

A Review of Cognitive Styles of Learning and Their Applications in TESOL

Cathy Duppenthaler

In the past 50 years, the TESOL world has been swept with one method after another, from the audio-lingual method to the natural approach. Despite a wealth of research, the superiority of any one method has yet to be established. Bandwagons and gurus have flourished and declined, and teachers are still looking for a method which will work consistently in the classroom.

Perhaps teachers and researchers alike have been approaching language learning from the wrong direction. It is quite possible that the place to start looking for more effective teaching strategies is not with a particular method, but with the learners themselves and the way they perceive and organize their world.

Cognitive style is a term used to describe individual differences in perception. The most comprehensive definition of cognitive style is given by Hansen and Stansfield: "Cognitive style is a psychological term used to describe individual differences in the way one habitually tends to perceive, organize, analyze, or recall information and experience" (1981:350). These differences, in turn, influence behavior. Some educators and researchers, Frank Smith among them, would go a step further and claim, "Cognitive structure is not just a part of the way we interact with the world, it is the basis of all our interaction" (1975:195). Two things must be remembered. First, these styles are generally stable over time in adults. Second, in spite of this stability, a single individual may approach any mental task in a variety of ways, according to the

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Cathy Duppenthaler graduated from Humboldt State University with a B.A. in Sociology and received her M.Ed. from Temple University Japan. She has been teaching EFL in Japan for more than 10 years and is currently teaching at Seibo Girls' High School and at Baika Women's College.

type of processing required for a particular task. This flexibility seems to be important. Brown says, "...the person who is more intelligent and more successful in learning is the person who is 'bi-cognitive'–one who can manipulate both ends of the cognitive style continuum" (1980:90).

It is important for ESL/EFL teachers to realize that learners, even those in the same classroom, differ widely in their perception of what occurs in that environment. Even those with the same perceptual style may differ in the manner in which this intake is organized and recalled. Having realized this, the need to vary one's teaching approach to cater to a wide variety of perceptual styles is obvious. Less obvious, but just as important, is the idea that the means teachers now use to evaluate students may favor one cognitive style over another. In fact, some teachers may, without realizing it, actually place more emphasis on cognitive or interactive style than on language ability.

Ausubel (1968:171) identified eighteen different cognitive styles. Other writers (Brown 1980, and McDonough 1981) feel that this figure is misleadingly high, and that many researchers have used different names for similar styles. This paper will review the five most-researched styles:

1. skeletonization and embroidery
2. tolerance and intolerance of ambiquity
3. broad and narrow category width
4. reflectivity and impulsivity
5. field independence and dependence

The first of these, skeletonization and embroidery, is the least researched of the five. It refers to the tendency to either minimize or maximize in the oral or written recall of cognitive material. Brown comments that, when recalling a narrative,

> Skeletonizing involves pruning out some particulars by retaining a substantive core of general facts which subsume the details; embroidering, on the other hand, involves 'importing,' or adding some material in order to retain original details that otherwise might have been forgotten. (1980:97)

The skeletonizer is concise, the embroiderer wordy. In the classroom the embroiderer would take more frequent and longer turns. As ESL/EFL teachers, we are constantly encouraging our students to say more and speak more frequently. The tendency is to give the highest grade to the student who speaks the most. The danger here is that it is not language ability but cognitive style that we are rewarding. If so, we are inadvertently penalizing students who are in fact good communicators–students who can organize, summarize, and communicate efficiently–but do not speak out frequently or at great length in the classroom. In the process, we are also reinforcing unnaturally verbose oral behavior.

The student who maintains a low profile in the classroom is not always a highly proficient skeletonizer, of course. He might be someone with low proficiency. The teacher's duty is to provide ample opportunity for small group and pair work (but not with an embroiderer) so that the student will have more occasions to speak out. Teachers must also refine their own listening skills. Close observation not of the frequency of communication, but of its quality, will enable the teacher to discriminate between students who say what is sufficient and then stop speaking, and those who lack the proficiency to communicate what needs to be said. Chances are that the student who is wordy in his native language will carry this behavior over into the second language. Discrepancies between first language behavior and second language behavior might also help the teacher discriminate between low proficiency and skeletonization.

A more serious problem faces teachers who must evaluate oral proficiency for placement purposes. They must make decisions based on minimal contact with the student. It is here where the skeletonizer is most apt to be mislabeled. Many placement tests require that a subject retell a previously heard/read story. Such tests, Brown feels, could be "biased toward embroiderers, who appear proficient if only because of the sheer quantity of output" (1980:97). Evaluators should be careful to try to differentiate between true proficiency and the greater (natural) output of embroiderers who may be bringing in material extraneous to the original passage. One way to adjust for this bias is to use a checklist to evaluate the quality of the responses on the basis of whether or not they were complete (touched on the main points of the original story) and accurate (both factually and grammatically). The interviewer might also want to set a time limit to "force" the wordy student to restrict himself to what is necessary.

The second cognitive style, tolerance and intolerance of ambiguity, is defined by Brown as the willingness to "tolerate ideas and propositions that run counter to your own belief system or structure of knowledge" (1980:94). The tolerant person is open-minded and accepting, while the intolerant person is less willing to accept unfamiliar or ambiguous ideas and tends to compartmentalize what is perceived. The intolerant learner would reject items that did not fit neatly into existing compartments, while the tolerant learner would reserve judgement on items that could not be classified. Support for a relationship between this cognitive style and language proficiency comes from the Toronto Good Language Learner Study (Naiman, Frolich and Stern 1975) which found that tolerance of ambiguity was positively related to French (second) language ability among Anglophone students of French in Canada.

Tolerant learners would seem to have an advantage any time new information is introduced into the classroom or when students are required to interpret or interact with the unknown. One would assume that these learners would have the advantage in second language learning where they are exposed to different (and often irregular) syntax, phonology, and lexicon, to say nothing of the strong influence of the foreign culture on the language under study. Intolerant students would be less able to deal with unknowns, and would probably be more dictionary dependent. Specifically, tolerant EFL/ESL learners would seem to do better in situations where they are asked to infer the meanings of new words from the context, an ability which Rubin (1975:41) cites as one of the seven characteristics of a good language learner, and Grellet (1981:4), in a list taken from John Munby's *Communicative Syllabus Design,* calls one of the most important skills in reading. If guessing is good, then the intolerant student must be encouraged to guess, but special care must be taken to ensure that reading passages are redundant enough to ensure that the guesser has a high probability of being correct. Incorrect guesses will simply serve to reinforce intolerant behavior.

The third cognitive style concerns broad and narrow category width.

> Broad categorizers tend to accept a wide range of items or instances as belonging to a category, thus risking the inclusion of items that do not really fit the category and narrow categorizers

> tend to accept a much more restricted range, thus risking the exclusion of items that do in fact fit the category.
>
> (van Els et al. 1984:114)

Category width is measured by a test known as Pettigrew's Width Scale (Pettigrew 1958) which contains questions such as the following:

> It has been found that the average height of a redwood tree in a certain forest is 20 meters. What do you think is the height of the tallest redwood? The shortest redwood?

Broad categorizers would give answers indicating a wider range, supplying a maximum of 30 meters and a minimum of 10 as opposed to the narrow categorizers' answers of 22 and 18, respectively. What does this mean to the language learner? A broad categorizer might tend to overgeneralize, applying -s endings to all nouns to form the plural, for example, or -ed endings to all verbs to form the past tense. We see some of this happening in young English first-language learners who go through a stage in which irregular past tense verbs are formed correctly. But these forms are soon replaced by non-standard verbs formed from regular part formation rules (i.e., "went" is replaced by "goed"). That stage is followed by one in which the past formation rules, both regular and irregular, are applied in a more conventional manner: "Goed" is discarded and "went" once again returns to use.

Narrow categorizers, on the other hand, go too far in the other direction, creating rules for each separate case. This would seem to handicap them in storing and recalling information. The ability to apply rules in unfamiliar situations functions as an aid to understanding. Not seeing this phenomenon as rule-governed would limit the learner to words for which he has memorized each part of speech.

For example, the optimal categorizer (OC) is able to recognize within unfamiliar words certain characteristics which help him to understand their meaning. That is, an OC learner hearing the Japanese word *yonde* for the first time, would be able to recognize it as belonging to the category of *-mu* verbs by virtue of the fact that it ended in *-nde.* From this, he would be able to recognize the dictionary form as *yomu* and be capable of looking up the meaning for himself. The narrow, or case-by-case categorizer, would only recognize this word if he had previously learned that it was the command form for *yomu.*

The optimal learning style might be a balance between both categorizing styles. It is now thought that second/foreign language learning is a feedback process of hypothesis making, testing, and revising. The learner must be willing to apply and test the limits of the rules he has hypothesized. On the other hand, it could also be argued that all language learners do this, and that hypothesis testing is a process which is part and parcel of language learning, and is independent of individual differences in category width which would in and of themselves not influence the efficiency of the process. Indeed, Brown mentions the Toronto study (Naiman, Frolich, and Stern 1975) which "examined category width and found virtually no statistical support for a relationship between this style and success in French as a second language" (1980:96).

The fourth cognitive style is reflectivity-impulsivity. Messer suggests the following definition:

> Reflectivity-impulsivity describes the tendency to reflect on the validity of problem-solving under a very special condition, namely, when several possible alternatives are available and there is some uncertainty over which one is the most appropriate. Tasks used to measure reflection-impulsivity usually present the subject with several highly plausible alternatives, only one of which is correct.
> (1976:1026)

According to these researchers, reflectives are significantly more field dependent (see below) than impulsives. This trait is usually measured by the Matching Familiar Figures Test (MFFT; Kagan et al. 1964), which asks the testee to choose from among several similar figures the one that most closely resembles a model figure shown in isolation. Those who have a shorter response time and make more than the average number of errors are designated as impulsives, those who are slower but more accurate as reflectives. It would seem that the latter are more concerned with the quality of their responses, reluctant to make a response unless they can be sure of its accuracy. These learners take the time to work out all the different parts of a problem and gather additional information before committing themselves, while the impulsives either seem to feel they are capable of making a response based on less information or are less worried about making mistakes.

Finally, research by Doron (1973) has shown that reflective adult second language readers are slower but more accurate than their impulsive counterparts. This same behavior is also seen in young readers in their native language: Kagan's research (1966) on first grade first language readers shows that even at this age reflective readers read more slowly but make fewer errors than impulsives.

Teachers should be aware that these two different cognitive styles require different responses on their part. The natural tendency in the classroom is to call on the first student who raises his hand, and most teachers value quick responses over slower ones. However, a reflective learner must, lest he be frustrated, be allowed more time to answer. If language is an ongoing hypothesis testing process, the reflective learner must be given a longer time in which to test the validity of his hypothesis. An impulsive would be likely to answer more quickly, but his correct response would be ambiguous: Is it to be interpreted as a lucky guess based on an incorrect hypothesis or as a correct response based on an accurate hypothesis? As with embroiderers and skeletonizers, further observation on the part of the teacher is necessary in this case to ascertain whether the impulsive student is consistently providing correct answers.

Impulsive students who are consistently wrong can be helped by asking them to verbalize the mental processes they go through in reaching their answers. This should enable the teacher to slow them down and pinpoint the cause of the errors.

The fifth and best-researched cognitive style is field independence and dependence.

> Field independent style [is] the ability to perceive a particular, relevant item or factor in a 'field' of distracting items....Field dependence is, conversely, the tendency to be 'dependent' on the total field such that the parts embedded within the field are not easily perceived, though that field is perceived more clearly as a unified whole. (Brown 1980:90)

Brown's description of how this ability is measured will help to clarify this definition. The test most often used is the Embedded Figures Test which asks the testee to look at a single figure and then identify it when it is presented again, embedded within a complex background. In other words, one is presented with a picture of the proverbial forest and is classified according to whether one perceives the forest as a whole or as being composed of discrete trees, one of which he has been asked to isolate. A similar test is given to the blind. In this case, the testee is asked to touch a pattern of raised bumps and then to identify it when it is presented again as part of a larger pattern. It is felt that this restructuring skill carries over into any cognitive operation with verbal or symbolic material.

As this test implies, field independent (FI) people are more analytical than global in their perceptions. They rely more on internal rather than external frames of reference. The literature suggests that these learners are better able to concentrate and to screen out interference from the environment. They are generally more independent, competitive, and self-confident. On the other hand, field dependent (FD) people perceive globally, tend to be more social, outgoing, emphatic, and perceptive, and tend to "derive their self-identity from those around them" (Brown 1980: 91). The former show a strong "impersonal orientation," while the latter show a strong "social orientation" (Witkin et al. 1977:11-13). Other writers describe FI people as individualistic and "less aware of the things by which others are moved" (van Els et al. 1984:113). They seem to derive their identity from internal standards, while FD people derive theirs from external sources such as the people around them.

Stansfield and Hansen comment:

> Theoretically, field dependence nurtures greater cognitive restructuring ability on various perceptual and intellectual tasks....Psychologists believe that FD individuals develop a greater degree of connection between the self and external stimuli than do FI individuals...[who] have a greater boundary between themselves and the world. (1983:263)

Restructuring can be done in several ways such as viewing parts of a field as distinct from the background, structuring a field which lacks structure, or restructuring a previously structured field. This cognitive restructuring ability has great implications for the classroom. One would expect an FI learner to be better at isolating important linguistic items and to be able to isolate and restructure material presented without a definite or (as in the case of a foreign language) familiar structure. An FI L2 learner, for example, should find it easy to recognize a clause or phrase in a given context, to isolate it, and to use it again in other contexts.

An FI learner would use the details of the foreign language to decode its meaning. He would be able to decide whether a name he had never heard before belonged to a man or a woman by listening carefully to the sex of the following pronoun, as in the passage, "Kelly entered the room quickly, hoping that she hadn't been seen." The FD learner, one assumes, does not have this option.

Following closely from this, Brown (1980:91-2) has suggested two conflicting hypotheses connecting this cognitive style with L2 learning. The first is that the FI person would be a better language learner because he is able to focus on relevant variables in a language exchange. Van Els cites the Toronto study of the "good language learner" (Naiman et al. 1978) in support of Brown's hypothesis. In the Toronto study involving Anglophone learners of French, "field independence was found to correlate positively and significantly with L2 learning success in the classroom, specifically with better performance on imitation and listening comprehension tasks" (1985:113-4). In addition, van Els mentions other studies (Tucker et al. 1976, Genesee and Hamayan 1980, Hansen and Stansfield 1981), in which "field independence was found to correlate positively with L2 learning success in the classroom" (1985:113-4).

Brown's second hypothesis is that the FD person would be a better language learner because he is more socially oriented. Brown's own research on adult ESL learners in the United States shows a high correlation between language proficiency and field dependence. Brown overcomes the apparent contradiction between his two hypotheses by concluding that FI learners would do better in a formal classroom setting while FD learners would do better in a natural setting. Krashen might make the distinction that FI individuals would 'learn,' while FD individuals would 'acquire'. Support for this comes from studies which show that children are more field dependent than adults. Krashen feels that children use more acquisition strategies, while adults, with their (field independent) attention to forms, use more monitoring strategies.

One important warning from Stansfield and Hansen concerns cloze testing. In their research on the relationship between FI and language proficiency among college students of Spanish as a Second Language, they found a very high correlation between FI and cloze test scores. Among students who had similar test scores in linguistic, communicative, and integrative competence, in other words, similar language abilities, the FI students had much higher scores on the cloze tests. They warn that "such measures [cloze tests] may call forth cognitive restructuring abilities not readily available to more FD individuals. In turn, it implies the need to use caution when employing or interpreting cloze tests for placement or achievement purposes" (1983:29).

On the other hand, FD students, according to research in 1974 by Krashen, Seliger, and Hartnett, (Hartnett 1985), do much better in inductive learning situations, as opposed to methods which teach grammar deductively through memorization of rules and their exceptions.

In conclusion, all these cognitive styles are in operation in the classroom, and they determine to a large degree what the student learns and how his performance is perceived and evaluated by the teacher. The ESL/EFL teacher must be careful not to confuse language proficiency, or the lack of it, with cognitive style. The lower output of skeletonizers should not be confused with low proficiency, to cite one example. In addition, classroom exercises should be designed to encourage more tolerance on the part of the intolerant learner and structured so that there is a high probability of successful guessing. Teachers must also be sure that the reflective learner is allowed a longer response time. Teaching approach must be varied enough to appeal to field independent as well as field dependent learners.

We must, as good teachers have instinctively done, approach the teaching/learning acts from all possible sides in order to accommodate all possible learning styles. We must stop hopping from one method to another in the search for the ultimate teaching strategy and learn more about our students' learning strategies.

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The Progressive Form: Grammar in ESL Learning

Roger J. Davies

Classroom and textbook presentation of the progressive may well be responsible for the common assumption that it is a relatively insignificant part of English grammar. Nothing could be further from the truth. The fusion of the *to be* auxiliary with the *-ing* participle has provided the language with a means of expressing "nice distinctions and logical precision [that] in many cases have emotional value" (Jespersen 1954:177 and 213). In fact, nothing distinguishes the English language today from other members of the Indo-European family as clearly as the progressive form. It is one of the richest forms in English for subtle distinctions of sense.

Nevertheless, in spite of its extensive use today, the progressive remains a difficult form to grasp for most ESL students, and an enigma for many teachers, who barely remember its existence after having presented it at early levels of language instruction. Most modern teaching grammars and manuals which follow a structural syllabus introduce the progressive simply as a means of representing an action in progress at the moment of speaking. It is thereafter usually forgotten. The fact that this approach is at variance with numerous examples found in English is generally ignored. Intermediate and advanced students are usually obliged to discover the complexities of the progressive for themselves (if, indeed, they ever succeed in doing so), and in the process have to correct what was previously learned.

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In the hope of shedding some light on the dilemma, this article will present a wide variety of examples of progressive use found in English speech and literature, briefly examine the nature of ESL instruction as it relates to the progressive, suggest an approach to teaching the progressive which seems able to reconcile the complexities of usage with the demands of the ESL classroom, and conclude with an examination of the role of grammar in ESL learning.

A Historical Perspective

One of the major achievements in the evolution of the English language has been the development of the progressive form.[1] In Early Modern English, where the progressive was rare or nonexistent, the simple form alone was used. Thus, in Shakespeare, for example:

> Polonius asks Hamlet (Act 2, Scene 5): 'What do you read my Lord?' Today of course we should say: 'What are you reading?'
> (Hornby 1984:172)

In Modern English the progressive form has been steadily gaining ground. Dennis (1940:855-865) examined this growth in a study of English literature designed to tabulate the frequency of progressive use. She notes that although the progressive is often used in conversation where contraction conceals its length, it has a more restricted use in literature. For example, it is often avoided in formal writing, where contractions betray a certain informality; in poetry, where it tends to be too lengthy and unwieldly to sound well; and in the passive forms, where it appears clumsy and heavy. It seems, however, that novelists who are masters of a colloquial style, or who wish to obtain a vividness or descriptive force in their writing, are very familiar with the progressive. Writers preferring a more formal style tend toward use of the simple form. Thus, as Dennis points out, Galsworthy might be expected to use the progressive more frequently than Conrad, Mark Twain more than Daniel Webster.

An investigation of twentieth century literature shows a greatly expanded progressive use, particularly in American prose

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[1] Jespersen's description of the progressive's origins seems unchallenged. He suggests that the verb form arose as a result of the union of the preposition *on* with the gerund after the verb *to be* (e.g., he is (was) on hunting). The reader is referred to Jespersen, 1954:164-177, for detailed study.

(cf. Dennis, Scheffer). Nevertheless, the highest frequency of usage in modern times occurs in Irish-dialect prose, (making the Irish, as one wit put it, the most progressive of all peoples). In fact, as Dennis notes, use of the progressive has been increasing steadily since the fifteenth century. In the twentieth century, this rapid growth has sky-rocketed, perhaps reflecting an expanded American sphere of influence in the English-speaking world and the resulting acceptance of informal style and colloquial usage.

The Problem

The crucial problem for any adequate description of the progressive is that the form has an enormous number of expressive effects, many of which seem contradictory.[2] Research into the literature provides a view of the progressive that is somewhat bewildering in its complexity and variety: it can be used to express an action in progress, duration, temporariness, limited recurrence; it can provide a time frame for other events; it can be used with future reference; it is likely to admit to the use of some verbs but avoid others; it imparts a certain descriptive force to narrative style; and it is associated with innumerable emotional nuances, many of great subtlety. Note however, that certain verbs are said to avoid the progressive use: "I'm feeling that I got an A" (Pollock 1982:4). Consider the following examples of progressive use:

Action in Progress: Now I'*m sitting down.*

Duration: Day by day we *are getting nearer* to death.
(Leech 1971:29)

Temporariness/Limited Duration: *I am living* in Wimbledon.
(ibid., 16)

Limited Recurrence: I *am getting up* at six in the morning.
(Hirtle 1967:49)

Temporal Framing: He *was writing* when I entered.
(Jespersen 1954:180)

Future Reference: I *am taking* four courses next semester.
(Azar 1981:102)

Emotional Connotation/Pejorative Emotional Coloring: He *is always acting up* at these affairs.
(Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman 1983:63)

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[2] Not only has the progressive been labelled in a number of other ways (e.g. continuous, expanded, definite, etc.), but there is continuing debate as to whether it should be defined as a tense, an aspect, or a form. Resolution of these problems is not the intent of this article. Quotations will be presented in the terminology of the author cited. In the body of this work, the term "progressive form" will be used exclusively and refers to the present time sphere unless otherwise stipulated.

> Emotional Connotation/Politeness or Modest Inquiry: I'*m hoping* you'll straighten it out for me. (Jespersen 1954:223)

Each of these approaches to the progressive has an undeniable validity, but none of them is comprehensive enough to provide the overall view essential to effective teaching. Certainly, advanced students should be exposed to some of these effects, but before they can begin to appreciate the nuances involved, they must be given a general basis on which to view and understand the progressive, one which can guide them through the different stages of second language learning as they encounter usage of increasing variety and difficulty. Unfortunately, however, the most widespread approach to presenting the progressive in ESL instruction today does not appear capable of providing such a guide.

Action in Progress

Teaching grammars and those teaching manuals that deal overtly with grammatical structure are practically unanimous in presenting the progressive as a means of expressing an action in progress at the moment of speaking. (cf. Alexander 1973:6; Azar 1981:81; Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman 1983:63; Dart 1978:76; Dixson 1973:38; Lado 1977:6-12; O'Neill 1978:6 and 13; Pollock 1982:2; Seidl 1981:31.) Most textbooks also contrast the progressive with the simple form, which is said to express habitual events. This notion is well-illustrated in *Practice and Progress* (Alexander 1973:6), which is perhaps typical of this type of approach:

> Actions which are in progress at the moment of speaking are expressed by the present continuous. Regular or habitual actions are expressed by the simple present.
> For example: Why are you cleaning the car now? Because it's Sunday. I always clean the car on Sunday.

Moreover, classroom and textbook presentation of the progressive characteristically links it to time (the present moment = NOW) and to ongoing activity (cf. Richards 1981:399). Teachers are encouraged to act out and describe everyday activities as a means of demonstrating the form, and to verbally reinforce this explanation with the cue word NOW. For example:

> Now, I'*m washing* my hands.
> Now, I'*m making* a meal.

Of note, as well, is that teaching manuals always introduce the progressive as an action in progress at very early stages of ESL instruction–it is *never* reintroduced in any other way at intermediate and advanced levels. Teaching grammars, which are generally designed for more advanced levels of study, often buttress 'action in progress' with lists of verb classes that avoid progressive use, in addition to referring on occasion to secondary meanings such as temporariness, emotional comment, or repetition in a series (cf. Dart 1978:76; Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman 1983:63).

Yet although the action-in-progress approach is surprisingly widespread, it has by no means solved the problem of presenting the progressive. There are, for instance, numerous examples in English of the simple form expressing actions going on at the moment at speaking. For example:

> Walker *swings* a right at the West Indian–he *ducks* and it *glances* harmlessly off his shoulder. (Leech 1971:2)
>
> Now I *put* the cake-mixture into this bowl and *add* a drop of vanilla. (ibid., 3)

In fact, presentation of the progressive in the ESL classroom based on the notion of ongoing activity has come under considerable criticism from educators and grammarians alike. Richards (1981:399), for example, points out that restricting the progressive to ongoing activity and insisting on a fixed association with the cue word NOW may be responsible for students assuming "that the progressive is a kind of narrative present. By analogy the past progressive is then assumed to be a narrative past." This gives rise to the following type of progressive misuse all too familiar to ESL teachers:

> *Last Sunday we *were going* to a party. We *were leaving* the house at six o'clock, and we *were taking* a taxi to our friend's house. (ibid.)

In a similar vein, Palmer (1965:62) argues that this method of teaching the progressive

> causes difficulty to the teacher of English at least if he tries to illustrate the verb form situationally; for in order to illustrate the use of the present progressive, he is likely to perform actions and describe them:
>
> Now I *am opening* the doors.
> Now I *am writing* on the blackboard.

> The natural reaction of a native speaker in these situations would be use the simple form, not the progressive.

Close (1958:59) agrees in stating:

> If I as a native speaker of English wished to report an act performed at the moment of speaking, I should instinctively use the Simple Present. . . 'I put my pen down at this point, get up and walk over to the window.'

He adds that:

> You can say, 'I'm going to the door' while you are on your way there, but it would be ridiculous to snap your book shut, declaring 'I'm closing my book.' (ibid., 61)

As was mentioned earlier, some teaching grammars do mention additional meanings of the progressive. Yet none of these additional meanings is ever linked in any way with the notion of an action in progress. Accepting 'action in progress' as the basic meaning of the progressive thus makes it necessary to explain additional meanings as secondary ones which have no recognizable relation to the primary meaning. As a result, presentation of the progressive breaks down into a random and fragmented series of individual facts of undeniable validity, but which do not show the whole pattern. How, indeed, can 'action in progress' account for temporariness, or emotional comment, or repetition in a series?

Most teaching grammars also attempt to supplement their presentation of the progressive with lists of verb classes which deny progressive use. Unfortunately, "exceptions to the rule" are ubiquitous, and as Close (1958:62) notes, verb classification as a means of teaching the progressive has definite limitations once students get beyond the controlled contexts of simplified usage:

> All verbs in English, except the pure auxiliary and modal verbs, can take both the simple and continuous forms. Moreover, a statement like 'There are certain verbs which only take the simple form' is unfortunate as it leads...to delay in introducing words like *see, hear, want, know, understand,* etc. that eager pupils want to know.

Moreover, the astute ESL student may well inquire as to *why* certain verbs are supposed to deny progressive use. Why, indeed, are so many verbs compatible with the progressive in some contexts and not in others?

'Action in progress' thus lacks precision and is misleading when used in the classroom. Though it is undoubtedly true that the progressive represents an action in progress in a great many instances, this precept is *not valid* in numerous cases. More importantly, with this limited approach to presenting the progressive, advanced ESL students are often denied exposure to real-life English and have no guide through the pitfalls of more subtle and complex usage.

Imperfectivity/Incompletion

In our search for a theory of the progressive sufficiently general to account for all the facts of usage, and yet sufficiently accessible to meet the demands of the ESL classroom, another approach needs to be examined: that of *incompletion*, or in its more abstract form, *imperfectivity*. A number of grammarians allude to incompletion in discussions of progressive meaning: Quirk et al. (1972:93) describe incompletion as a "concomitant...overtone"; Leech (1971:15) as a "separate aspect of meaning." Close (1975:244) argues for incompletion as a primary meaning of the form: "The progressive...conveys the idea of activity which has begun but is not completed." However, none of these grammarians explore the implications of 'incompletion' in any detail, and this meaning is rarely linked in the literature with the form's diverse expressive effects.

Two authors have proposed a similar but more abstract notion of progressive meaning, that of imperfectivity. Comrie (1976:26) describes the progressive as a "category to express imperfectivity." Hirtle (1967) has written extensively on the imperfective character of the progressive and is perhaps one of the earliest sources to link the progressive with imperfectivity. His work thus provides a good basis for examining 'imperfectivity' as a means of accounting for progressive use, and more specifically, the implications of such an approach for ESL instruction. Hirtle's notion of imperfectivity, however, has been developed within the framework of linguistic theory, certain key assumptions of which must first be clarified:

1. Language has two levels, two constituent elements. There exists not only a physical side to language, known as connected speech or discourse, but also an underlying mental organization, a highly coherent, unconscious *system* from which linguistic forms arise.

2. Because it necessarily requires at least two components to form a system, linguistic forms are found in obligatory, *binary opposition.* Of importance here is the assumption that the progressive exists in permanent and necessary opposition to the simple form.
3. Any linguistic form has a *single, underlying meaning,* which gives rise to a wide range of contextual meanings and expressive effects when actualized in discourse.

The above principles, then, suggest that the progressive, like the simple form, expresses one underlying impression, one position in a mental system, and that one can account for the diverse contextual meanings and expressive effects found in discourse on the basis of this underlying, basic meaning. In grammatical terms, the simple/progressive opposition can be described as follows: "The simple form is *perfective,* the progressive form *imperfective*" (Hirtle 1967:27). In other words, the simple form expresses an event which strikes the mind as being *complete,* as permitting no further additions or changes; the progressive form expresses an event which is perceived as being *incomplete,* as lacking something, as leaving room for something to come.[3]

Finally, of fundamental importance to understanding how the simple/progressive dichotomy functions is the fact that the verb in English can express two types of events: states (e.g., *The pen is black*) and actions (e.g., *He painted the house*):[4]

> A *state* involves no change; its material content remains constant from one moment to the next; it has no defined limits on its extension into the past or future; every instant of a state is identical to every other and the whole of a state exists in any instant of its being; a state is seen as complete whatever its duration.
>
> An *action* suggests some change, some development; it has a beginning and an end; every instant of an action is different from every other and each involves the subject in a slightly different activity; an action requires a certain stretch of time to be carried out, and may be seen as complete or incomplete.

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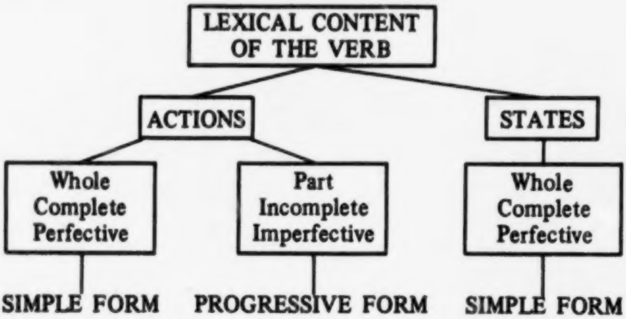
[3] Of importance here is the fact that notions such as completion or incompletion must be understood on the basis of how the speaker or writer represents the experience he wishes to express. Linguistic forms such as the simple and progressive express mental reality; i.e., "our impressions of external reality and not the external reality itself" (Hirtle 1967:27). Thus, a given external reality may be perceived in different ways and so "poured into different grammatical moulds" (ibid.).

[4] Also described as "stative and dynamic uses of verbs" (Quirk et al. 1972:93-95) and "state and event meanings of verbs" (Leech 1971:4).

Consequently, a state, which is necessarily whole and complete in any instant of its existence, can only be expressed by the simple form. An action, on the other hand, can either be depicted as a part, or incomplete, in which case it requires the progressive, or as a whole, or complete, in which case the simple form is called for. Thus, as Hirtle (1967:27) notes, "...the progressive is limited to the expression of imperfective actions; the simple can express either a perfective action or a state." These relationships are clearly illustrated in the following chart which has been borrowed from Hirtle (1967:31) and Richards (1981:394) and slightly modified:


LEXICAL CONTENT OF THE VERB
ACTIONS
STATES
Whole Complete Perfective
Part Incomplete Imperfective
Whole Complete Perfective
SIMPLE FORM
PROGRESSIVE FORM
SIMPLE FORM

Imperfectivity in Discourse

We have seen that virtually all teaching grammars and manuals propose 'action in progress' as the basic meaning of the progressive form, in spite of the fact that this approach presents considerable complications for ESL instruction. We will now examine progressive use from the point of view of 'imperfectivity' in the hope of supplying an adequate explanation capable of encompassing the facts encountered in teaching the form.[5] We will begin, therefore, with the use of the progressive and simple forms to express actions going on at the moment of speaking (current actions), then turn our attention to a number of examples of progressive use which cannot be accounted for on the basis of an action in progress.[6]

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[5] For our purposes, 'imperfectivity' necessarily includes the perfective/imperfective opposition underlying the simple and progressive forms.

[6] No attempt will be made here to deal with all the issues surrounding progressive use. Representative examples have been selected which shed some light on many of the problems detailed earlier, and which, it is hoped, are of some interest to the reader.

Current Actions and the Progressive

Perhaps the most frequent use of the progressive in English is to express current action. For example:

> It's *snowing* quite heavily.
> The baby *is sleeping* soundly.

The simple form, however, also describes actions occurring at the moment of speaking. How, then, can these seemingly contradictory facts of usage be reconciled? The problem, it seems, lies not with the action-in-progress approach itself, but with the perspective from which it is viewed. The answer can be found in a closer examination of the nature of the *present moment* as it relates to the notion of imperfectivity.

The moment of speech, the present moment, is an extremely short stretch of time which coincides with the instant of actual consciousness. As a result, most actions involving the present instant must be represented as incomplete since the whole of the action cannot be represented. That is to say, in most circumstances the present moment is simply not long enough to contain an action in its entirety. Being seen as incomplete or unfinished, it demands, as a consequence, the progressive form. *Snowing* or *sleeping*, for example, would both normally be felt to have a somewhat lengthy duration, one that overflows the present moment. The speaker thus represents the event as divided, as having an accomplished portion and leaving room for further accomplishment, the necessary condition for progressive use.

Because the present moment has such a pervasive influence on all aspects of human experience, one of the most frequent, concrete, and easily understood effects of imperfectivity is an action in progress. It would be a mistake, however, to consider the action in progress definition found in so many textbooks as the form's basic meaning. An action in progress is, in fact, only one of the effects of progressive use, one of the numerous manifestations of the underlying meaning of the form.

Current Actions and the Simple Form

The distinction between the underlying meaning of a form and its expressive effects in discourse is also essential to an understanding of how the simple form, as well, can be used to express current actions. Close and Palmer have commented on such uses and Close

(1958:59) touches on the perfective/imperfective opposition when he states:

> ...the simple form is selected because of a desire to relate acts as completed at the moment of speaking...rather than a description of unfinished activity.

In fact, there are numerous instances in English of the simple form expressing actions which coincide with the moment of speaking. These examples, which contradict the "rule of usage" found in most textbooks, forcing one to view them as "exceptions," are, of course, important to teaching as they are clearly appropriate for students at more advanced levels of instruction.

Commentaries are one such example. Sports broadcasts, for instance, make use of the simple form in describing extremely rapid actions:

> Ryan *winds up* and...*throws!* Curve ball misses. Ball three.
> Ewing *jumps, shoots*...It's a basket!

In these cases, because of the rapidity with which the actions take place, the commentator does not have time to mentally divide the event into an accomplished portion and a prospective accomplishment as would normally occur in describing actions in progress. The speed at which they occur forces the commentator to view these actions as a whole, necessitating the use of the perfective. When the progressive is used with such verbs, it may imply repetition:

> He'*s throwing* with a lot of confidence.
> She'*s shooting* 60% from the floor.

For actions which are less rapid and take a longer time to complete, the progressive form is normally used, as the commentator sees the event as incomplete and has time to divide it like any other action in progress:

> He'*s going back* into shallow left for the pop-up.

In fact, a tabulation of the two forms in sports broadcasts (cf. Leech 1971:15) seems to confirm this evaluation. It was found that there is a tendency to use the simple form in describing sports such as football, tennis, and boxing, whereas the progressive is more frequent in the description of rowing, cricket, and golf.

Demonstrator's English is another type of usage in which the simple form is the norm. It can occur with an English teacher in front of a class or in the patter of a magician or in a cooking demonstration, as on television for example.

> I *close* my eyes and *take* a card...
> I *add* two teaspoons of salt and *mix* thoroughly...

In these circumstances, the demonstrator, having practised the routine or recipe on numerous occasions, can foresee the event's completion as a matter of course, and so, requiring a representation of this perfective image, selects the simple form. Of interest, as well, is the fact that an observer, not being familiar with the outcome of the trick or recipe, would likely view the event as imperfective, and make use of the progressive in describing the action:

> He'*s closing* his eyes...and *taking* a card...

Emotional Connotation

It is rare to discover a grammarian, modern or traditional, who has not commented on the use of the progressive in the field of emotional connotation. Dennis (1940:865), in fact, argues that the continuing expansion of progressive use in modern times will occur chiefly in this very area. It is a construction which is often charged with feeling or colored with some emotion. Pejorative emotional coloring, for example, is an effect often associated with the progressive:

> He'*s* always *reading* at meals.
> They'*re* continually *arguing*.

Though many grammarians have readily recognized the intended effect (i.e., irritation, annoyance, indignation, etc.), few have offered an explanation as to how this effect arises. It seems, however, that these impressions are the result of *hyperbole* (cf. Kruisinga and Erades 1953:257). In these cases the progressive represents a series of recurrent actions continuing over time. This series is considered imperfective and, being seen as incomplete, as having no end in sight. The combination of this impression with temporal adverbs such as *always, continually, forever,* not only emphasizes the endlessness of the series, but also has the effect of suggesting that, at any moment in time, the subject is involved in the action–quite obviously an exaggeration. This feeling of something excessive gives rise to certain emotional nuances of a generally unpleasant nature.

Leech (1971:24) has commented on another common impression associated with progressive use: "The Progressive is a more tentative, and hence more *polite* method of expressing a mental attitude."

> I'*m hoping* you'll give us some advice.
> We'*re wondering* if you have any suggestions. (ibid.)

In fact, the past progressive is felt to be doubly self-deprecatory:

> What *were* you *wanting?*
> I *was hoping* you would look after the children for us. (ibid.)

In these examples, the progressive, presenting an imperfective image, creates an impression of a request or hope that is not completely formed, leaving the person addressed with a greater option for refusal. The simple form, on the other hand, would evoke a perfective image, in which the notion represented by the verb would have been completely formed, the result of which might be considered too demanding or coercive:

> What *do* you *want?*
> I *hope* you'll look after the children for us.

Verb Classes

It is certainly true, as numerous grammarians have stated, that some verbs (i.e., verbs of sensory perception, verbs of mental activity, and verbs of having and being) are usually found in the simple form:

> I *see* a butterfly.
> I *understand* your problem now.
> I *like* this book.
> I *am* hungry. (Azar 1981:82)

However, examples of "exceptions to the rule" are widespread. For example:

> I've only had six whiskies and already I'*m seeing* pink elephants. (Comrie 1976:37)
> I'*m understanding* more about quantum mechanics as each day goes by. (ibid., 36)

The crowd *is loving* it. (Olympic Games Commentary, Women's Field Hockey, Los Angeles, 1984)
He'*s being* good/useful/helpful/a nuisance/an angel...
(Leech 1971:25)

In fact, such examples are quite normal given the lexical content of these verbs. Usually these verbs reflect a lexical content which is homogeneous, complete, and unchanging. Having this perfective image, they are represented like all verbs of state by the simple form. From time to time, however, this lexical content is felt to be heterogenous, incomplete, and open to change. The resulting imperfective image requires the progressive form. In other words, the lexical content of these verbs allows them to be expressed as either perfective or imperfective, as a state or an incomplete action. An explanation as to why is provided by Hirtle (1967:70), "In general, when one of these verbs expresses an *operation* it may be used in the progressive; when it expresses a *result* it is used in the simple form."

To think and *to forget* are perhaps representative of verbs that are said to be incompatible with the progressive:

I *think* he'll come. (Palmer 1965:76)
I *am thinking* of going to America.
(Kruisinga and Erades 1953:259)

The verb *to think* can be expressed as an opinion fully formed or as a process of thought, a pondering or contemplating. In the first example above, the result of a mental process is expressed. The pros and cons have been weighed and the speaker has formed an opinion. The process is complete and the resulting state requires the simple form. The progressive form, in the second example, denotes the mental operation of forming a decision, which is not complete until the desired result is obtained. This incomplete action thus calls for the progressive form.

It is true that the verb *to forget* is normally found in the simple form, but it would be incorrect to suggest, as do many teaching grammars, that it cannot be used in the progressive, where it is certainly not exceptionally rare. It can take the imperfective when the forgetting is a gradual process that takes place over time; the operation can be represented at mid-course when, of an acquired body of knowledge, some will still have been retained, some forgotten.

I *forget* his name.	(Azar 1981:82)
I'*m forgetting* my French.	(Close 1975:243)

At this moment, the process of forgetting is incomplete and the progressive is called for. The moment the process of forgetting is finished, which can generally occur rapidly with single pieces of information, the resulting state requires the simple form.

Imperfectivity in the Classroom

English grammars, both traditional and modern, approach the problem of the progressive in a number of different ways, many of which appear to have serious drawbacks for ESL instruction. It is obvious, for example, that any attempt to teach the progressive by describing all the circumstances in which it is found is an impossible task. The generality of the notion of imperfectivity gives rise to such a staggering number of effects that any such attempt is doomed to failure. An approach based on the classification of verbs is equally self-defeating. Taken to the nth degree, this approach necessitates the learning of one or more classes for every verb, as verb classes break down into individual cases with increasingly advanced levels of usage. This approach entails an impossible feat of memorization for students as exceptions are myriad. Simply listing all the contextual meanings of the progressive (i.e., duration, temporariness, temporal framing, etc.) also has obvious limitations. None of these proposed meanings is comprehensive enough to deal with all the progressive's uses, and more importantly, among these meanings there are those that are mutually contradictory. As Goldsmith and Woisetschlaeger (1982:82) note, this approach necessitates assigning two contradictory meanings to a single grammatical form, a task that provides "little understanding of how sentence forms and meanings are associated," and one that "makes it hard to understand how the meaning of the progressive could be learnable."

As a result, most teaching grammars and manuals have adopted a simplified approach to teaching the progressive, one based on the form's most concrete and frequent use: action in progress. This approach may well provide a good approximation to usage at an elementary level of instruction, but students often find that intermediate and advanced level material is simply a revision or repetition of elementary work. When rules for advanced usage are given, they often contradict rules already learned or are so numerous and contain so many exceptions that they are impossible to assimilate.

Sound teaching practice dictates that for an approach to be valid for teaching purposes it must be valid for all types of examples. In particular, it must provide a basis for the students' progress through the different stages of second language learning as they encounter usage of increasing variety and difficulty. It appears that 'imperfectivity' is capable of meeting these requirements. However, ways must now be found to communicate this understanding to students. What is needed and remains to be accomplished, is the construction of carefully designed, graded exercises to guide students through the various stages of progressive use as examples become more rare and varied. A battery of graded exercises in order of difficulty of effects, from the most concrete to the most abstract, must be provided, with care taken to demonstrate the link between imperfectivity and its various effects in discourse. In this way each use can be taught as an expression of meaning. Through carefully developed dialogues and situational models, through sequenced exercises contrasting the progressive with the simple form, the various uses of the progressive can be understood as arising from a single, underlying meaning, whatever the particular level of instruction. At an elementary level, for instance, students can be shown that the progressive indicates an action that is incomplete in time at the moment of speaking. At an advanced level, the notion of imperfectivity can be linked to many of the more subtle distinctions associated with progressive use.

This approach to teaching grammar based on the underlying meaning of a form has the advantage of supplying a single basis of explanation for all levels of instruction. Since there is no shift in the basis of explanation for every new use, students are not required to memorize a theoretically endless list of rules, sub-rules, and exceptions. At an advanced level, students, observing the various nuances arising from a single, underlying meaning, can view language as a coherent whole, rather than a mass of disparate, individual facts. In addition to helping advanced students become aware of the subtle distinctions provided by the progressive, this approach permits the learning process to be simplified at an elementary level. The notion of an action in progress and hence incomplete in time is a concept easily grasped, as it is common to the experience of all people.

In conclusion, it should be pointed out that this approach to the progressive is applicable to the teaching of all grammatical forms. Grammar teaching has been traditionally seen as a listing of rules of usage. Even today, the common, limited view of grammar is that of a prescriptive set of rules. In fact, however, a speaker uses a particular grammatical form not because of some rule, but because of the meaning of the form, which shapes the lexical meaning of the word in a certain way within a particular context. When the teaching of grammar is based on lists of rules, it simply does not correspond to reality in language. The rules and exceptions to the rules become endless, and the learning process itself becomes a tedious task of labelling and memorization. To make grammar teaching effective, grammar must provide access to meaning. Having students relate usage to meaning within controlled contextual situations, sensitizes them to English, makes use of their intelligence, not just their memory, and permits the learning of grammar to become a satisfying and even enjoyable experience.

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Guidelines for Teaching the English Article System

Seth Lindstromberg

Introduction

Native speakers of languages which have no formal equivalent of the English articles often seem to have profound difficulties with this part of the language. This is especially apparent when the learners in question have to rely on just a few hours of class time a week for their English input. Where these difficulties are attended to at all in an organized way, a common course of action involves adopting a deductive approach and having learners attempt fill-in-the-blank exercises. The exercises are usually preceded by some sort of explanation or rule presentation and followed by some discussion of the work done. But there is reason to doubt that the nature and complexity of the task facing learners have been at all well appreciated in this regard. In this paper it is argued that teacher descriptions of article use hinge on terminology that is of too high a level to be comprehensible regardless of what language these descriptions are given in. A version of Wittgenstein's language-as-a-game analogy is used to illustrate and support this argument. As a step toward helping teachers to shift to terminology of a lower, more comprehensible level, an informal flow chart is presented. This flow chart is based substantially on an analysis of article use in terms of presupposition and speech function and is

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compatible with a communicative approach to teaching. It is suggested that learning about the article system can benefit certain intermediate and advanced learners even if it is indeed the case that learning never becomes acquisition.

Benefits of Teaching Articles

First, it seems to me that ignorance of the article system must prevent a learner from getting beyond a certain point in interpreting discourse, however advanced that point might be. Articles make important distinctions between the definite/indefinite contrast in English and serve to clarify referential murkiness. Furthermore, a knowledge of article use could help strong intermediate and advanced learners avoid the reproof and stigma that repeatedly making so-called simple errors can cause.

Second, learning the article system may aid acquisition of the article system. Even if it is true that conscious, articulable rule knowledge (the result of learning) never evolves in the mind directly into the all-important unconscious, perhaps unarticulable rule knowledge (the result of acquisition); it may indirectly aid acquisition by making it possible for learners to comprehend more of what they hear and read (Steven Sternfeld, cited in Krashen 1985:42). Thus, any sort of accurate learning could contribute to acquisition to a greater or lesser extent. Furthermore, learning may lower the affective barriers in some students by fostering feeling of satisfied intellectual curiosity (Krashen 1985:42). This could be especially true of students finally grasping the sense of the ubiquitous articles.

Third, learning can occasionally substitute for acquisition. In a class of highly motivated, academically oriented students who are interested in language for its own sake, discussion of the article system can provide an occasion for provision of comprehensible input just as discussion of anything of interest can provide this input (cf. Krashen 1985:58, 73-74). Indeed, I have found that language learners tend to be particularly interested in features of their target language that evince quite different emphases from their first language in grammaticalization of basic concepts like definiteness/indefiniteness, animacy/inanimacy and so forth.

Learning a System

There is a sense in which mastering the English article system should be easy. It is a closed system learnable in its entirety–

something that cannot be said of some other language sub-systems like the lexicon. It is even true that the very terms *definite* and *indefinite* say a great deal about the function of the articles. Unfortunately, it is not likely that an unarticled learner (a learner whose first language has no formal equivalent of the English article system) will be able to understand what these terms or any translations of them are meant to convey about that function. After all, since different languages grammaticalize definiteness in different ways and to different degrees, one might wonder how the unarticled learner is supposed to guess what these terms mean for us. And it is at this point that we may begin asking overselves if acquiring, or even just learning, the English article system is so easy after all.

Perhaps an analogy might help. Everyone knows the rigamarole that can be involved in explaining an only moderately complicated game to someone who in fact knows a game quite similar. Consider the difficulty of explaining a more complicated game like bridge to someone who knows nothing about any sort of card game whatsoever. Naturally, before much progress can be made, both parties must come to grips with details on a fairly low level. What a playing card is and how they are ranked must be understood before sense can be made of higher level terms like *trick* and *slam*. Conversely, having an idea of the sense of the ranking derives to some degree from having an idea of the sense of a trick (cf. Wittgenstein 1972: 47, 108 and 1980: 25). And, of course, it can take some time before all the various details take shape in the mind of the learner as the elements of a multi-level system. There is something satoric about comprehending a game or any other multi-level system. And yet, there appears to be no way of constructing an accurate mental model of a system that does not, at some stage, involve confronting the details in their pre-satoric messiness.

It follows from this view of the problem that one of the ways in which a teacher can help the unarticled learner understand the article system (if not to actually acquire it) is at some time to approach it on a low level of description (cf. Wittgenstein 1972: 47, 109).

Past Problems

It does not appear to me from the materials I have looked at and the teaching I have discussed and observed that teachers and materials writers have approached the problem with a sense of system. Perhaps for this reason the whole enterprise is treated as being at once too simple and too complex. One of the problems is that teachers seem very often to count on learners being able to see examples as examples of precisely what the teacher wants the learners to see them as examples of. But, as Wittgenstein pointed out, wanting someone to see something as an exemplification of a certain concept is totally insufficient as a guarantee that this person will not see the same something as an exemplification of some other concept (1972:34–35). This often results in fill-in-the-blank exercises where, from the learners' point of view, the groups of examples given will seem a mish-mash of what are quite different uses of the articles and will therefore be of little or no help when it comes to doing the exercises. Futhermore, there is an awareness that if the high-level explanations do not work, things get confusing pretty fast. The result is either 1) that attempts to teach the article system are never made or are soon abandoned or 2) reliance on high-level explanations is insisted upon and teaching is carried on despite the confusion manifested by learners. I am reminded in connection with the latter case of certain floating fishing lures which have eyes and spots painted on top–clearly attractive to fishermen but of doubtful effect on fish.

Teaching the System

According to Dulay:

> The definite/indefinite *a/the* distinction seems to resist explicit instruction. The rules governing *a/the* are so complex, they are not stated adequately in many grammar books. This distinction will have to be learned subconsciously or not at all. (1982:267)

On the other hand, Krashen has observed that:

> Even very advanced acquirers . . . have gaps, and it is not desirable to wait for acquisition to fill all of them; quite often errors on late-acquired items are stigmatized. When they can be learned, they should be. (1985:75-76)

It is my contention not only that the article system should be taught, if possible, but also that it is possible. First of all, teachers need to keep in mind the difficulties involved in comprehending a multi-level system and realize that the complexities cannot be swept under the carpet. Second, I hope that the decision sheet will show that the complexity is, in any case, manageable. I believe the essence of the system can be resolved into some twenty low-level teaching points such that they 1) can be clearly related to examples of use and 2) direct the learner toward eventual, simpler, higher level understanding of what the system does. And that is what the decision sheet is an attempt at. It is based on an earlier version which I used in Japan as an aid in planning my teaching of the article system.

The Decision Sheet

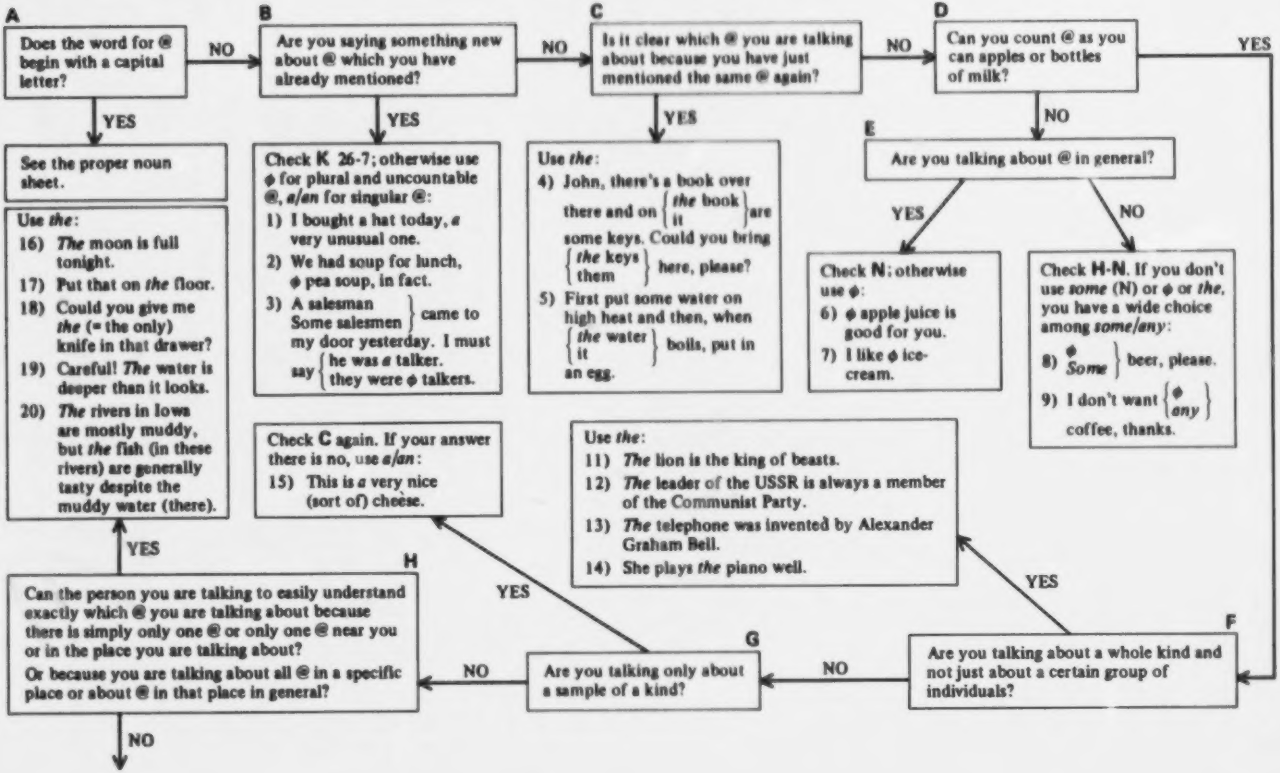
The decision sheet was composed with the aim of separating out as many different strands of the problem as possible so that teachers might get a better idea both of the complexity learners are faced with and of a possible approach to helping learners resolve this complexity. This format will hopefully make more digestible the complexity which arises from preference for low-level descriptions.

The sheet is intended as a guide to teaching interested, well-motivated upper-intermediate or advanced level learners whose needs include being able to avoid or, at least, self-correct article errors in certain situations. It should be used in conjunction with solidly contextualized examples and tasks (see appendix). The sheet is not intended to be used in the classroom. It is meant to be an aid to teachers in planning the teaching of the article system and in composing worksheets. Keeping the number of different uses of articles to a minimum in one session works best, as this avoids mixing up teaching points and thus possibly confusing the students.

It has been stated that the logic behind the various uses of the article is straightforward if viewed in terms of speech acts (Hawkins 1978:18) rather than grammatical categories such as definite and indefinite. Since the decision sheet does break the system down according to speech act divisions and we assume that a large part of the meaning of an article depends on speech function and presupposition, it follows that a communicative program would be the best context for teaching the article system in the fashion suggested.

Coping with the sheet presupposes command of the mass/count and singular/plural distinctions as well as of the common quantifiers (*some, any, most,* and so on), to name only three prerequisites. The symbol @ means any of the following: *a/an thing, the thing,*

The Decision Sheet



A Does the word for @ begin with a capital letter?

NO → B. YES → See the proper noun sheet.

B Are you saying something new about @ which you have already mentioned?

NO → C. YES →

Check **K** 26-7; otherwise use ϕ for plural and uncountable @, *a/an* for singular @:

1) I bought a hat today, *a* very unusual one.
2) We had soup for lunch, ϕ pea soup, in fact.
3) {A salesman / Some salesmen} came to my door yesterday. I must say {he was *a* talker. / they were ϕ talkers.}

C Is it clear which @ you are talking about because you have just mentioned the same @ again?

NO → D. YES →

Use *the*:

4) John, there's a book over there and on {*the* book / it} are some keys. Could you bring {*the* keys / them} here, please?
5) First put some water on high heat and then, when {*the* water / it} boils, put in an egg.

D Can you count @ as you can apples or bottles of milk?

YES → F. NO → E.

E Are you talking about @ in general?

YES →

Check **N**; otherwise use ϕ:

6) ϕ apple juice is good for you.
7) I like ϕ ice-cream.

NO →

Check **H-N**. If you don't use *some* (N) or ϕ or *the*, you have a wide choice among *some/any*:

8) {ϕ / *Some*} beer, please.
9) I don't want {ϕ / *any*} coffee, thanks.

F Are you talking about a whole kind and not just about a certain group of individuals?

YES →

Use *the*:

11) *The* lion is the king of beasts.
12) *The* leader of the USSR is always a member of the Communist Party.
13) *The* telephone was invented by Alexander Graham Bell.
14) She plays *the* piano well.

NO → G.

G Are you talking only about a sample of a kind?

YES →

Check **C** again. If your answer there is no, use *a/an*:

15) This is *a* very nice (sort of) cheese.

NO → H.

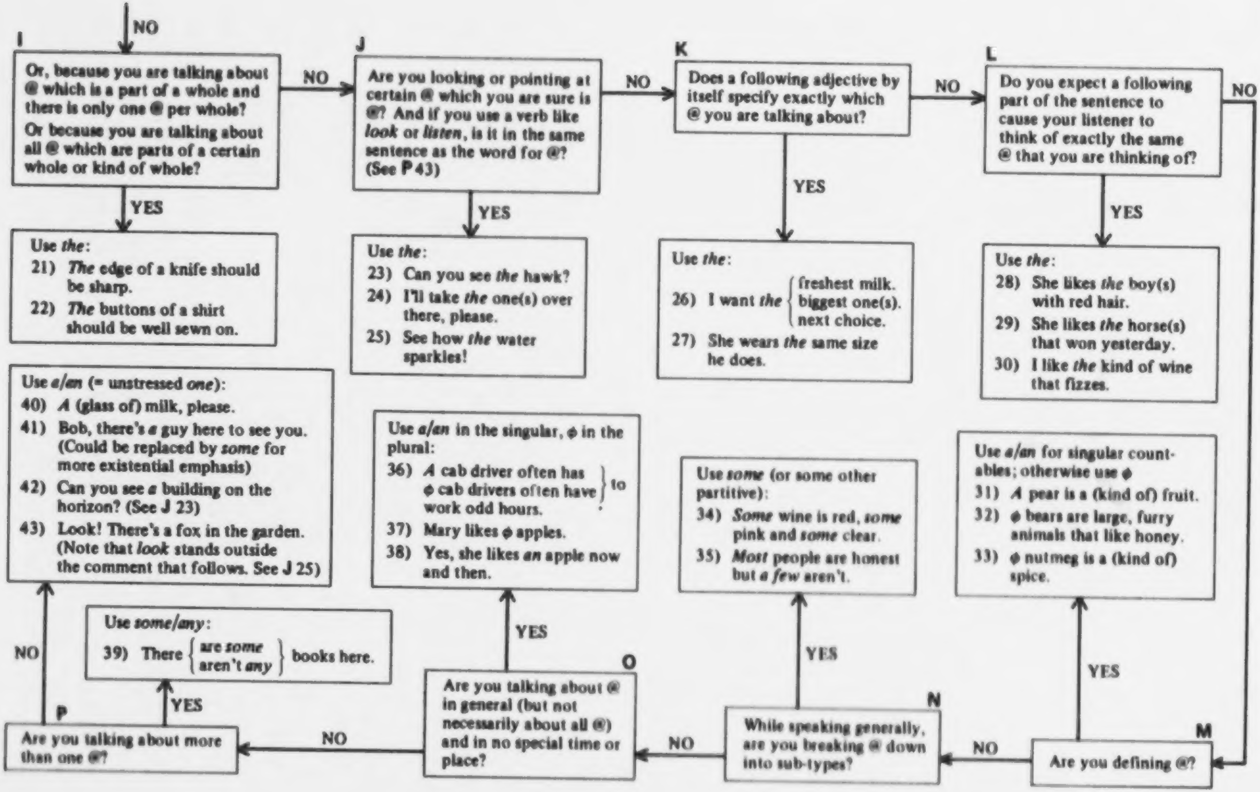
H Can the person you are talking to easily understand exactly which @ you are talking about because there is simply only one @ or only one @ near you or in the place you are talking about?
Or because you are talking about all @ in a specific place or about @ in that place in general?

YES →

Use *the*:

16) *The* moon is full tonight.
17) Put that on *the* floor.
18) Could you give me *the* (= the only) knife in that drawer?
19) Careful! *The* water is deeper than it looks.
20) *The* rivers in Iowa are mostly muddy, but *the* fish (in these rivers) are generally tasty despite the muddy water (there).

NO



I

Or, because you are talking about @ which is a part *of* a whole and there is only one @ per whole?

Or because you are talking about all @ which are parts of a certain whole or kind of whole?

Use *the*:

21) *The* edge of a knife should be sharp.

22) *The* buttons of a shirt should be well sewn on.

J

Are you looking or pointing at certain @ which you are sure is @? And if you use a verb like *look* or *listen*, is it in the same sentence as the word for @? (See P 43)

Use *the*:

23) Can you see *the* hawk?

24) I'll take *the* one(s) over there, please.

25) See how *the* water sparkles!

K

Does a following adjective by itself specify exactly which @ you are talking about?

Use *the*:

26) I want *the* {freshest milk.
biggest one(s).
next choice.

27) She wears *the* same size he does.

L

Do you expect a following part of the sentence to cause your listener to think of exactly the same @ that you are thinking of?

Use *the*:

28) She likes *the* boy(s) with red hair.

29) She likes *the* horse(s) that won yesterday.

30) I like *the* kind of wine that fizzes.

M

Are you defining @?

Use *a/an* for singular countables; otherwise use ϕ

31) *A* pear is a (kind of) fruit.

32) ϕ bears are large, furry animals that like honey.

33) ϕ nutmeg is a (kind of) spice.

N

While speaking generally, are you breaking @ down into sub-types?

Use *some* (or some other partitive):

34) *Some* wine is red, *some* pink and *some* clear.

35) *Most* people are honest but *a few* aren't.

O

Are you talking about @ in general (but not necessarily about all @) and in no special time or place?

Use *a/an* in the singular, ϕ in the plural:

36) *A* cab driver often has
ϕ cab drivers often have } to work odd hours.

37) Mary likes ϕ apples.

38) Yes, she likes *an* apple now and then.

P

Are you talking about more than one @?

Use *some/any*:

39) There {are *some* / aren't *any*} books here.

Use *a/an* (= unstressed *one*):

40) *A* (glass of) milk, please.

41) Bob, there's *a* guy here to see you. (Could be replaced by *some* for more existential emphasis)

42) Can you see *a* building on the horizon? (See J 23)

43) Look! There's a fox in the garden. (Note that *look* stands outside the comment that follows. See J 25)

the things, things and *stuff* or *substance.* It has been employed so as not to prejudge the yes/no questions and also to enable brevity of expression. I do not advocate its use in the classroom. The same goes for ϕ (no article). *Some* and *any* stand for any quantifier that might fit.

A partitive is any quantifier except *all, every, no,* and *not . . . any;* that is, *some, a few* and so forth. I have tried to include as few quantifiers in the sheet as possible while at the same time wishing to alert the teacher to the fact that quantifiers will come up from time to time.

Reference is made to a Proper Noun sheet in Step A of the decision sheet. I have not included this here as it might be a good experience for teachers to draw up their own Proper Noun sheet in order to clarify in their own minds certain questions they may have regarding article use in these instances. Teachers may consult the following sources for information on this: Jespersen (1974: 544–579), Quirk (1974:160–165) and Sloat (1969:26).

The start position is where the circle has been broken down so it can be gotten into. This point may have been chosen somewhat arbitrarily, but I could think of no principled way of deciding where to begin. Given the various interdependencies, I am not sure this matters much.

I have encountered only four uses (or non-uses) of articles which I consider exceptional according to a strictly synchronic (ahistorical) view, which is, of course, the learner's view: 1) phrases like *the more the merrier,* 2) omission of the article before phrases like *go by car,* 3) use of *the* before wrong (for example, *the wrong way*) even in cases where there might be an infinity of possibly wrong ways and 4) expletive phrases like *what the hell.*

No claim is made that all high-level terms have been eliminated from the sheet. Thus, taking question K as an example, one might well ask how specifying an adjective has to be in order to require *the.* All I can say here is that it would be up to the teacher to indicate the cut-off by means of solidly contextualized examples. It might be worth noting here that it is not the case that all superlatives are preceded by *the:* for example, "There's a biggest city in every country" (cf. Grannis 1972:286). The difficulty of finding a formal rule even for uses like this serves to highlight the apparent inadequacy of formal rather than pragmatic description of article use (cf. Grannis 1972:288). At any rate, the sheet certainly does not offer the ultimate solution to the problem of giving the clearest possible explanations but only a possible approach to a solution. Teachers are invited to improve it.

APPENDIX

A Sample Exercise

Teaching point: H/yes.
Reviewed: B/yes, C/yes and the forsakable rule of thumb that singular countable nouns are introduced into conversation with *a/an* while uncountable and plural countable nouns are introduced with ϕ or a quantifier.

I was late for breakfast one morning because I had put my driver's license in the house somewhere but *just* where I couldn't remember. I spent some time trying to find it. Finally, my wife came in and asked me what I was looking for this time and said I was going to be late, as usual. This is what I said:

> I'm looking for my driver's license. Where could I have put it? Why can't I ever remember where I put anything? It wasn't in any of my pants pockets so I looked under *the* bed. No luck. Then I looked behind *the* chest of drawers, in each of *the* drawers, behind *the* bookcases, on *the* bedside table, all over *the* floor . . . I've looked everywhere. What a hassle! Have you seen it?

Notice that every time I mentioned something in our house, I said *the*. Well, naturally, my wife knows our house well. She knows everything that's in it. So, of course, when I mention something like the bed or the bedside table, she knows exactly which bed and which bedside table because she knows which bedroom I mean. When I mention the floor, she knows which floor. Because I know she knows which thing I'm talking about, I say *the*. In other words, you don't always have to introduce something into your conversation with *a* or *an*. But when don't you have to? Let's look at another bit of conversation. You see, later on . . . on the same day I couldn't find my driver's license . . . I met a friend, and this is part of what I said:

> Guess what. I had to take the bus to work today. I lost my driver's license in my own house. I looked for it everywhere . . . under *the* bed, behind *the* bookcases, all over *the* floor . . . .

Well, the conversation was pretty much the same. I still said *the* every time I mentioned one of the things in my house. Why? He has never been in our house and doesn't know it at all. Then how can he know, for example, just which bed I am talking about? After all, there are a couple more beds in the house in the other bedrooms. Well, it's easy for him to know this really. I must sleep in my wife's and my room. Most married people only have one bed in their room. So that's the bed I mean. And he knew that all the other things I mentioned were things in my house so then he knew which things I meant even though he hadn't seen them. They are all things one expects to find in a western style house.

But let's go back to my unlucky day, the day I lost my driver's license. Later I met another friend and told him about one thing in my house that I had forgotten to mention to my other friend. This is part of our conversation:

Me: I looked under *the* bed, on *the* bedside table, under *the* iguana . . .

Him: Uhh? Wait a minute! Under the what?

Me: Oh, under the iguana. Didn't you know? We have *an* iguana. It takes care of the mice and bugs.

So you see, when there is a possibility someone won't know what you're talking about, you shouldn't start with *the*. My friend was confused because very few people have iguanas in their houses. By saying *the* iguana, I was talking as if he should know about our iguana. But he didn't. It wasn't natural for him to think "Ah, yes. *The* iguana in his house" like he might think "Ah, yes. *The* floor and *the* bookcases in his house." He knew I was talking about a particular iguana because I said *the*, but he didn't know which iguana. So he interrupted me. In order to avoid confusion I should've started differently. Maybe like this,". . . and we have *a* pet iguana and I even looked under it."

Have you got the idea? OK. Give this a try, but don't forget the other rules for using *a* or *the* (or nothing) that we've already talked about.

"I had ________ dream last night about driving ________ car, not my car, somebody else's. It was ________ sports car. There was ________ old man sitting in ________ driver's seat. I was in ________ other front seat and in ________ back there was ________ large, spotted frog. ________ frog wanted me to open all ________ windows so it could catch ________ bugs. I refused because ________ man said ________ wind would blow his hat off.

Suddenly I was at home. ________ TV was on. ________ frog was sitting beside me on ________ sofa. It wasn't ________ same frog. It was reading ________ magazine about bugs. 'This is ________ silly dream,' I thought. And then I woke up."

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Using Rock and Popular Music in EFL

N. McBeath

In recent years the use of song as a teaching tool in EFL classrooms has come to be generally accepted—so much so that most new EFL courses will automatically include songs on their accompanying cassettes. Other than a general agreement that song is a good thing, however, there appears to be little consensus on the type of song to be chosen, or the way in which such songs should be used. A further complication is that many teachers appear to forget that students' exposure to English, and particularly to English songs, does not end at the classroom door. This article argues that rock and popular music are easily accessible sources of material that can be used for teaching vocabulary, structure, and idiomatic expressions in the EFL classroom.

Prime reasons for using rock and popular music in the classroom are the worldwide accessibility and popularity of this kind of music. Murphy (1984) has estimated that "Swiss adolescents are in contact with one or two hours of English Language Music per day in their natural environment, or an average of more than 12 hours a week" and the amount of time spent listening to English music is likely to be just as high in other parts of Western Europe.

Ironically, at a time when there is a growing awareness that radio broadcasts have an immediacy and authenticity that prerecorded material may lack, there still appears to be a reluctance to accept the music that is broadcast. It is somehow felt that these songs are inappropriate for class use. McCready (1976) has urged the use of "communication songs" as a substitute. He believes that these songs avoid the problems involved in teaching both lyrics and

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music, and then finding that the students are unable to transfer a structure learned as part of a song into spontaneous speech. This may be a problem if one only intends the students to sing the song, but if the song is treated as an aural stimulus then the main part of McCready's argument falls flat. The examples of "communication songs" that he gives, moreover, are both grammatically inept and of such simplicity that it is hard to see any but the very youngest children deriving any benefit or satisfaction from them.

> Take the number *four*
> Since it is so small
> Multiply it fast by *two*
> Answer now to all. (1976:7)

To be fair, Santibanez (1979) reports that she was able to use these communication songs successfully in Chile, but I have the gravest reservations about this type of material, mainly because it is so openly and heavily didactic. One example of this genre comes from Kabila-Mututulo (1978) in Zaire:

> Do you know the major American authors?
> If not, here they are.
> Bradford, Broadstreet, Sewell, Taylor,
> Mather, Edwards, Wheatly, Kemble-Knight,
> Poe, Melville, Emerson, Thoreau,
> Fitzgerald, Faulkner, Hemingway, Thomas Wolfe,
> Gass, Barth, Updike, Oates.

Fernando (1978), teaching in Sri Lanka offers another example:

> I myself and you yourself,
> He himself, she herself,
> We ourselves and they themselves,
> That's the way we sing.

In both these instances the communication achieved is virtually nil; the lyrics have become a meaningless collection of phonemes that can be sung without any understanding.

Slightly different, and of considerably improved quality, are those songs which have been produced commercially and are designed to accompany core textbooks. One example of this is the *Skyhigh* cassette by Abbs and York (1975) which accompanies the *Strategies* series. Mathews (1984) has analysed one of the songs from this collection and has shown how it can be used to introduce or reinforce the conditional of impossible condition.

These songs differ from those previously examined because they tend to be more professionally produced. They are designed as ancillary material to a commercial package, and so they tend to echo the rhythms of popular music. Except in the case of songs recorded specifically for young children, there is less emphasis on their being used as an oral activity. The very fact that they are pre-recorded suggests that they will be listened to several times even if an attempt is finally made to sing them. This is a sensible approach, especially if dealing with Middle or Far Eastern students, who tend to have some difficulty with Western harmonics.

The fact remains, however, that at a time when western music is reaching a far larger audience than ever before (200 million for the Live Aid concert alone) it is paradoxical that we should still be attempting to manufacture special teaching songs. In the past decade the global landscape has been transformed by new forms of technology, and this, in turn, has produced new patterns of cultural behaviour. One of these new patterns is the easy availability of music on cassette, and throughout the Middle East and Southeast Asia this music has the additional advantage of being exceptionally cheap.

The idea of capitalizing on the availability and popularity of rock and popular music brings us to the use of this music for teaching vocabulary. It is not at all uncommon for students to approach a teacher with a request that he or she clarify the lyrics in one particular song. Often the lyrics have been learned, but not understood. In some cases it could be argued that the lyrics of many rock songs are not the best material for teaching vocabulary, but that strikes me as a very thin argument. If the language of a song does not meet our requirements, the obvious thing to do is to reject it in favour of something better. We have no qualms about rejecting textbooks or simplified readers if we feel that they are inappropriate, but it is not a corollary of such decisions that we reject all textbooks and simplified readers. Furthermore, if we accept McClean's statement that there are "a number of songwriters of the past ten years or so, men and women who in another age would have written poetry but who nowadays express themselves through the medium of popular song" (1983:44), then a blanket rejection of popular song automatically involves rejection of material that is both well phrased and intellectually satisfying.

A case in point is the first verse from *The Rose*:[1]

Some say love, it is a river
That drowns the tender reed.
Some say love, it is a razor
That leaves your soul to bleed.
Some say love, it is a hunger,
An endless, aching need.
I say love, it is a flower
And you its only seed.

In this example, the wealth of imagery and alteration of tone leave no doubt that we have a case of McClean's "Rock as Literature." The abcbdbeb rhyme scheme makes it suitable for a prediction exercise based on rhyming phonemes, but the internal counterposing of the river/reed, razor/bleed, flower/seed raises this basic prediction to an exercise in semantics. This is, of course, advanced vocabulary study, but song can also be used at an elementary level. Firth reminds us "At the level of everyday spoken intercourse all languages are equally primitive and in a sense they are all holophrastic" (1964:83). Command of the holophrase gives a rewarding sense of fluency to most students, but this is especially the case with students at an elementary level, and few popular songs are without holophrastic elements. Typing the lyrics and leaving blank spaces where these holophrases occur will produce a simple aural comprehension exercise for students to complete while the record or cassette is being played. Two very recent popular songs that can be used in this way are Cyndi Lauper's *Time After Time*–the very title is a holophrase–and Lionel Richie's *Stuck on You.* Multiple examples also occur in the songs of Jim Croce, as in, *Dreaming Again*:

I'm not the same.
Can you blame me?
Is it hard to understand?
I can't forget.
You can't change me.
I am not that kind of man.

A similar use of song to generate response to prediction exercises has already been mentioned, but in the example of *The Rose* this was based on rhyme. Western European and South American students tend to find these exercises quite simple, as the search for a rhyming word necessarily limits the choice. Not all languages have the same rhyming conventions, however, and so what could be an easy prediction exercise for an Arab could be very challenging for a Yugoslav or a Chinese. Under these circumstances, it is perhaps best to vary this work with exercises that demand semantic prediction. An example here is Eric Clapton's *Wonderful Tonight:*

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[1] *Cross Currents* was not provided with the name of the author of this song.

> It's late in the evening,
> She's wondering what clothes to wear.
> She puts on her makeup,
> And brushes her long blond hair,
> And when she asks me
> "Do I look all right?"
> Then I say "Yes,
> You look wonderful tonight."

Here the very banality of the scene described allows for the successful prediction of almost any word deleted.

Regarding the teaching of grammar, many rock and popular song lyrics offer valuable structure practice also. In the case of the conditional structure being taught by the above-mentioned *Skyhigh* cassette, for example, a song by the '60's group Bread has as its chorus:

> I would give everything I own
> I'd give up my life, my heart, my home;
> I would give everything I own
> Just to have you back again.

This verse exemplifies the conditional of impossible condition far better than the rather aimless speculation of the *Skyhigh* authors, Abbs and York: "If I lived on that tropical island . . . I would . . . ." The universality of the poignancy of loss gives the Bread song an immediacy in any part of the world, while dreams of idyllic tropical islands may run thin in the poverty of Sri Lanka or the West Indies.

A further advantage of this song, and of the other songs quoted earlier, is that all conform to the accepted rules of "good" grammar. Grammar is an important consideration when we use rock and popular music to teach idioms. Sekara (1985) has used this music to teach idiomatic expressions to Malaysian students. This can be very beneficial, provided the students are cautioned that idiomatic expressions often have a limited lifespan and may quickly become dated. Teachers should remember, however, that lines like Springsteen's,

> I act like I don't remember,
> Mary acts like she don't care

are positively counter-productive in that they reinforce a non-grammatical pattern that elementary students are notoriously prone to use. Attention must be paid to this point, for otherwise the teacher is reinforcing error, and a careful distinction should also be made between the idiomatic and the uneducated vernacular.

Teachers have therefore been given a source of authentic teaching material and can select what is best fitted to their present teaching needs. Here I feel that the important factor ought to be the authenticity of the music rather than its contemporary flavour. McClean (1983) has some harsh things to say about "those tedious 'protest songs' which many liberal-minded teachers still regard as the epitome of topicality," but if a song of this genre suits a particular lesson then it ought to be used. To paraphrase Docherty, it is more important to be real than to be recent.

Many times the appropriate choice of a song can stimulate and enhance students' interest in the cultures and societies of English-speaking countries. For example, in the Arab Gulf, *English for Oman Book 7* includes the song *My Darling Clementine* as an incidental item in a unit devoted to gold. This, I feel, is an acceptable use of what would otherwise be a very questionable song. I have used the same technique in playing John Lennon's *Woman* to a class of Gulf Arabs who had just completed the *Kernel Lessons Workbook* unit on Lennon. In this way, material which is culturally weighted against certain groups of students can be made slightly more accessible to them.

Sometimes a song introduced with a different purpose may spontaneously stimulate interest in a special topic. An example here is the song *Don't Cry for Me, Argentina,* which I originally introduced as a reinforcement exercise with idioms. In this case, the class demanded further information about Eva Peron, analysed the lyrics closely to see how they reflected the historical facts and later produced some photographs that they had found in Arabic magazines. Why this response should have occurred in this instance I do not know, but it clearly opens up the possibility of using song to begin project work or as a basis for individual or group research. With advanced students, moreover, it is possible to combine study of rock songs with study of the videos that so often promote the music. This involves students in discussion of both their own conceptions of the song and whether these differ greatly from the commercial artists' conceptions. This method of teaching can be based on a theme, as in the case where reggae music is used as a source material for a project on the Caribbean and the forms of English spoken there, or in the case of the Michael Jackson *Thriller* video which engendered the spin-off *Making of Thriller* video.

Popular music is a rich source of material for class use, and it would appear from the literature that this music is acceptable to students in all parts of the world. I feel that McClean is correct in regarding the lyrics of some popular songs as a new, and perhaps not yet entirely accepted, form of literature. In this respect, the songs of Elton John, Jim Croce, John Lennon and Bob Dylan are perhaps the most obvious examples. Leonard Cohen walks the uneasy line between popular musician and published poet, and his work is probably too complex for classroom explanation to EFL students below a very advanced level. There can be little doubt, of course, that much popular music will always be unsuitable for use in the classroom because it relies on repetitive phrasing, naive imagery, or because the lyrics are frankly inaudible. However, the best of this music, selected with care, can rise to the level where it becomes intellectually satisfying, and it is this material that we can introduce to our students.

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Bright Ideas

Maintaining Conversations with Open Questions

Marsha J. Chan and Kathryn L. Underdal

We have probably all experienced difficulty in maintaining a conversation. A dialogue that starts successfully may stop abruptly when it does not blossom into a conversation. Our ESL students often feel more shut out of conversations than we do because they lack certain strategies for developing and maintaining a conversation. By learning how to make effective use of *open* questions, ESL students can experience more success in carrying on conversations in English.

In this Bright Idea we will define what we mean by *open* and *closed* questions, explain how we teach open questions, and provide sample activities for classroom use to help students learn how to use open questions.

By *open* question, we mean the type of question that allows the conversational partner a chance to expand on his or her topic or to express his or her ideas. An open question gives the other person a choice of how to answer, whereas a *closed* question tends to be factual and can often be answered with a "yes" or a "no" or a short answer. A closed question often indicates that specific information is desired.

The following interaction is a typical conversation between native speakers and ESL students. It illustrates the dead end nature of closed questions:

Suci : Have you been to Indonesia before?
Mary: No, but I've been to China.

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Suci : When did you go to China?
Mary: Oh, two years ago.
Suci : Did you teach over there?
Mary: Yes, I taught English.
Suci : When did you come back?
Mary: Last July.

In this interaction, Suci uses questions which are easily understood, but she seems more like an interrogator than a friendly conversationalist. Her aim is probably to keep the conversation going, but she lacks the strategies necessary for doing this effectively. Suci might have been more successful in this interaction if she had been able to involve her partner more actively in the conversation. One way she could do this would be by using open questions.

We find that teaching students to use open questions early in their language development really pays off later in their ability to maintain or continue a conversation. Grammatical accuracy, though desirable, is not necessary in order to converse. As soon as students understand the usage of such question words as *how*, *what*, and *why*, we introduce the concept of open and closed questions.

We define open and closed questions through the use of paired questions such as the following:

1A: How many brothers and sisters do you have?
1B: What do you enjoy doing with your family?
2A: What is your favorite hobby?
2B: What do you like about fishing?

As the students give possible answers to each of these questions and others like them, we write their answers on the board. This oral practice and visual reinforcement helps them see the differences: the closed questions (1A, 2A) tend to elicit a single answer, whereas the open questions (1B, 2B) are apt to get multiple and varied answers.

In the next stage, students distinguish between open and closed questions such as the following, marking each question *O* or *C*:

Driving Cars

1. Do Americans drive their cars a lot?
2. Why do Americans drive cars so much?
3. What do you have to know about driving a car before you can get a license?
4. At what age can teenagers get a license to drive in California?
5. How long have you been driving?
6. What do you enjoy most (least) about driving?

When students are able to distinguish between open and closed questions, we let them see the results of an interaction in which open questions are used. We present a dialogue on audio tape, followed by visual reinforcement on the blackboard, on a handout, or on an overhead transparency. In the following conversation, Kathie finds out what sports Marsha is interested in and then gets her to elaborate on why she is interested in one of them:

Kathie : What kind of sports are you interested in, Marsha?
Marsha: I like jogging, swimming, skiing...
Kathie : Skiing? What is it you like about skiing?
Marsha: It's lots of fun, it's exciting, you get to breathe fresh air, and the scenery is so beautiful!
Kathie : Where do you usually ski?
Marsha: Mostly at Heavenly Valley.
Kathie : What's special about Heavenly Valley?
Marsha: Well, my family has a cabin near there, and it's where I first learned to ski. I like to go back there because it's got great slopes, and besides, the view of Lake Tahoe is terrific!

It is useful at this point to discuss conversational topics. ESL students often have trouble deciding on topics (Hatch 1978) so we do a brainstorming exercise in which the students think of topics that they would feel comfortable talking about when getting to know someone. We write a list of these topics on the board as they call them out. After compiling a list of fifteen or twenty topics, the class selects one topic and composes questions that they might ask a person about this topic. No questions are answered; they are merely written on the board. Although all questions are included, students are encouraged to ask open ones.

When the class has done one example together (one topic, ten questions), the students are asked to generate questions for several more of the topics on the board. After they have written their questions (usually as a homework assignment for the next day), the students go to the board and write one of their questions under each of the assigned topic headings. Here are some of the questions students have generated on the topic of sports:

1. What's the difference between soccer and football?
2. How do you play baseball?
3. Did you play tennis last weekend?
4. How come the 49ers lost the last game?
5. Do you feel bad if your team loses a game?

When all the students have written a question under each topic, the class analyzes each question to determine if it is open or closed. This encourages discussion because the class discovers that while most questions can be clearly distinguished as open (1, 2, 4) or closed (3), some are on the borderline and can be interpreted as both (5). After analyzing the questions together, the students work in groups of three or four to review the questions that they each wrote. They read their questions to their group mates, determine if they are open or closed, and mark each question with an *O* or *C*. We circulate to help them with the task of analyzing the question types.

This type of small group work has multiple benefits: students have a concrete topic to discuss, they learn to distinguish between open and closed questions, and they learn from each other different ways to ask questions. After this, the class examines the kinds of questions that tend to be closed and the kinds that tend to be open. By this time they have discovered that closed questions often ask for specific information while open questions do not.

Now the students are ready to practice using open questions. To prepare them for this small group activity, we model the procedure first in front of the whole class. The teacher chooses a topic such as "my trip to China" or "Thanksgiving." The students are then responsible for helping to develop the topic by asking open questions. In this way, everyone has a chance to hear, if not use, open questions in context.

The class then breaks into groups of three or four. Each student chooses a topic that he or she wishes to talk about. The others in the group ask him or her five to eight open questions on the topic. We circulate to guide and evaluate the students. We repeat this activity the next several class periods to help the students learn the open question strategy.

As a follow-up to the in-class, structured activities, the students, alone or in pairs, use the same strategies outside of class in interviews of about ten minutes with friends, school personnel or co-workers. Knowing that ESL students are sometimes reluctant to approach native speakers on their own, we provide an opening gambit, such as: "In our English class, we are learning how to improve our conversation skills. For homework our teacher asked us to talk with an English speaker on one of these topics (the student presents a list of five topics). Would you talk with me(us) for a few minutes?" Following the interviews, the students make a brief oral report to the class, stating who they talked to, what they talked about, which questions generated the greatest response from the speaker, and how they felt about the interaction as a whole.

This systematic procedure of introducing students to open questions helps them see the effects that various kinds of questions have on conversational interaction. There are many variables involved in a successful conversation (Richards 1980); using open questions is only one of the many strategies that can assist students in their conversations with native and non-native speakers. Knowing how to use open questions provides ESL students with a useful tool for maintaining conversations in English. We have found that teaching students how to use open questions helps them keep the door to conversation open.

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Sports Special: Putting English on the Ball

Teaching Language through Sports

Keith Maurice

When learning a foreign language, people generally yearn for a stimulating context in which to stretch their skills while, at the same time, being protected by a comforting and accepting atmosphere. Whether they are businesspeople who need language for occupational reasons or students who need to pass exams, they all share a common desire for both stimulation and acceptance within the classroom. The use of games, when handled with humor and humanism, has long been recognized intuitively by many teachers as a valuable way of getting learners more actively involved in classroom activities. Games can release learners from the drudgery of attending class by serving to make learning activities exciting 'events' shared by all.

Sports have a universal appeal. The Olympics and other major sporting spectacles tend to draw out all sorts of passions from people who are otherwise calm and collected. In many countries, where competition is a way of life in education and business, sport serves as a release from daily pressures. It relieves the mind while offering pleasant stimulation and instant thrills.

In ESL, many types of sporting activities can be adapted and utilized. These range from 'one-on-one' activities to large team contests. Two will be explained here: *The Comparisons Tournament*, which is orginal to my knowledge and *Communication Baseball*, which was developed anonymously over 10 years ago with variations made since that time.

The Comparisons Tournament

This technique was devised as a way of introducing and reviewing the use of comparatives and superlatives in ESL classes for

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businesspeople. Later, it was found to serve as an effective ice-breaking activity in intermediate classes and as a complement to other activities in intensive courses. The basic idea is to have the learners compete in an elimination tournament, using any activity imaginable, until one person emerges as the winner and 'champion.'

At the beginning of the activity, the teacher announces what the competition will entail and then introduces a few new words and phrases that relate to sports and to betting, a common adjunct to sports enjoyment. The words and phrases include:

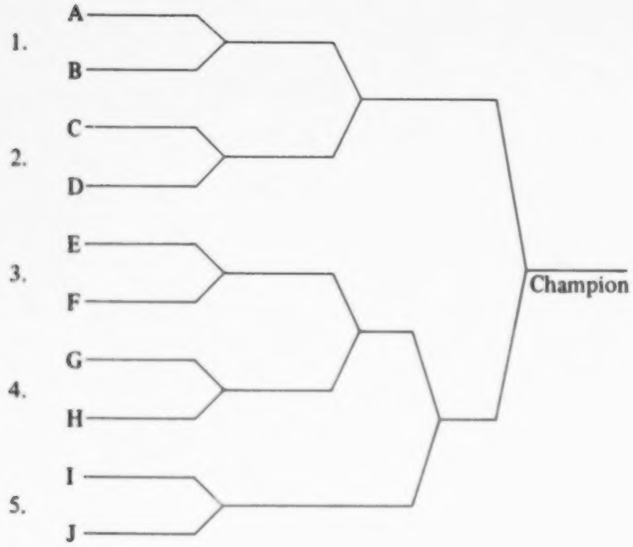
the odds
in favor of (6 to 4 in favor of)
against (6 to 4 against)
the favorite (slight favorite/heavy favorite)
the underdog
upset (as a noun, active verb, and passive verb)

Many learners will also be interested to know that such words and phrases are often used in politics and business as well as in sports. In fact, business in the West incorporates much terminology from the world of sports and games and it could be argued that those learning language for business reasons need as much of this kind of language as they can pick up.

After these phrases are introduced, basic structural patterns such as *is . . . than* and *is not as . . . as* are presented. For example, if a running race is held, the patterns would be *is faster than* and *is not as fast as* whereas if a wristwrestling contest is held, the patterns would be *is stronger than* and *is not as strong as*. Names are placed on a tournament chart to keep track of who is competing against whom. The chart can be used for any number of participants; the following one is set up for ten.

Once the tournament order has been decided, the competition can begin. The first two participants come to the front and bets are placed. The teacher or one of the students asks the other members of the class for their opinions on the comparative talents of the contestants and their predictions on the outcome of the match:

Who do you think is faster, A or B?
Can C run faster than D?
A will win because he is faster.
C is stronger than D.



After each student has given his or her prediction, the number of people supporting "A" or "B" are tallied and the odds, the favorite, and the underdog are quickly announced. For example, the teacher might say something like "The odds are 7 to 5 in favor 'A' so 'A' is the favorite and 'B' is the underdog." Then the two contestants compete and the results are put on the chart. The teacher can also reinforce the patterns and vocabulary by stating the results: *The underdog upset the favorite; A was faster than B.* As the tournament progresses, the statements can be changed into questions for the students to answer. The teacher can increase student involvement by selecting students to announce the matches and ask for opinions and predictions. The final match of the tournament uses both the comparative form and the superlative form.It also gives the teacher the opportunity to introduce other useful terms, e.g., champion, runner-up, second-best, and so on.

Several notes: First, students seem to enjoy it if the teacher becomes a contestant as well. This helps to break down the status barrier in the classroom and aids in allowing some natural humor to come forth. Secondly, the physical activity involved sometimes seems to help to arouse enthusiasm for other activities later in class. I have seen reserved Japanese businessmen transform themselves into rugged wrestlers for the tournament and consequently become more enthusiastic about the whole learning environment. Finally, the tournament needs to move quickly or else the activity can become a slow moving drill. It takes about twenty or twenty-five minutes to run through one tournament activity, including explanations, for a class of 10–15 (40–45 minutes for a group of 30). If two such activities are planned, the second can be completed in half the time, since everyone is already familiar with the patterns and the procedure.

Various activities can be used. The two that I use most frequently are wristwrestling and penny pitching. The first is very physical and has been a welcome event whenever it has been used. The second activity, penny pitching, involves throwing a small coin toward the wall–the student whose coin is closest to the wall is the winner. This can serve as a nice complementary activity to wristwrestling since one utilizes strength and quickness and the other emphasizes accuracy. Other alternative activities could include a running race (is faster than), comparing loose change (richer than), and so on.

Communication Baseball

This technique is designed to help students practice listening comprehension and speed up their responses to questions. The class is divided into two teams, with a minimum of four per team. Each team takes turn 'batting,' i.e., answering questions from the pitcher. The questions can be adapted to fit a wide variety of content needs. They can come from specific lessons or be general checks on grammar, vocabulary, phonology, culture, current events, technical matters, or whatever the focus of the English course and interest of the students happen to be. Because baseball is popular in the U.S., Japan, Taiwan, and certain parts of Central and South America, the activity tends to be most successful with language learners from these regions. In my experience, Japanese businessmen widely perceived the activity as an enjoyable way to practice their listening and responding skills.

Before class, it is necessary for the teacher to develop an extensive set of questions, divided into four categories of escalating difficulty (single, double, triple, and home run). A set of 40 'single questions,' 40 'double questions,' 25 'triple questions,' and 15 'home run questions' is usually sufficient for a game. (Sample questions are listed in the Appendix). A set of rules and guidelines also needs to be determined. The following variation, with the teacher serving as 'pitcher' has worked well:

1. Each batter chooses the difficulty of the question that he or she will answer. The pitcher first asks "What are you trying to hit?" and then, when the batter decides, asks the question from the designated category.
2. No question is repeated; the batter only gets one chance.
3. The batter has six seconds to formulate an answer.
4. If the batter answers correctly, he or she goes to the designated base; if the batter answers incorrectly, he or she is 'out'; if the batter fails to respond at all in six seconds, a 'double play' is recorded and the team is penalized with an extra out.
5. Sometimes batters may get second chances. For example, if a batter has answered incorrectly, the pitcher may ask the team 'in the field' to answer; if nobody from the other team can answer, the batter may be asked another question or may be allowed to go to first base 'on an error'.
6. Whenever a question cannot be answered correctly, the pitcher announces the answer.

Many variations are possible. Some teachers may choose to repeat questions for the students. This can be particularly helpful in giving students practice in using "I beg your pardon," "Could you repeat that again, please?" or some other device for asking for repetition or clarification. In another variation, teachers may choose to shorten or lengthen the time given to fit the needs of their own students. The idea of having a time limit is valuable, however, in that it forces students to respond within a socially acceptable period of time. If no time limit is given, some students may take 15-20 seconds to answer, which turns the activity into a deadening drill and the moment into one of painful embarrassment for the one who can not answer. The extra penalty given for silence reinforces that it is better to say "I don't know" than it is to remain silent and slow up the game (and communication).

Setting up the activity

1. Explain the activity's purpose, its rules and the roles of the players.
2. Choose two team captains.
3. Have a coin toss to see who chooses the first player, after which each captain alternates in choosing players.

4. Draw a scoreboard on the blackboard, and perhaps choose team names.

5. Physically arrange the room to allow a baseball diamond to be simulated. Having people physically up and moving seems to help generate a sporting spirit in the students.

6. Have a second coin toss to determine which team will bat first and which will bat last.

7. Have the non-batting team take their places in the field, or at least separate from the batting team, with one player in charge of keeping score for the other team.

8. Begin play, with the teacher taking the pitcher's 'mound'.

The game should have a time limit and move quickly; there is rarely time to play a complete nine-inning game. A game can be a set number of innings (3 or 5) or a set amount of time (40 minutes). The tempo of a game can be increased by initiating a series of fastballs (questions asked rapidly) and/or curveballs (trick questions). These can also be used to make sure that one team does not take an overwhelming lead.

There are many other variations that can be used to make this activity fit the purposes of particular classes. Students can be assigned to take the role of 'pitcher' or the pitcher can give commands as well as ask questions. In one intensive course for businessmen where the video/text of *English for Business: The Bellcrest Story* was used, changes were made in the technique of asking questions. Instead of the usual format, the *Bellcrest* comprehension questions were used in the game, which helped to enliven the classroom atmosphere while covering the same material.

Final Remarks

Using sports as a framework for activities in the classroom can aid in maintaining motivation and energy and dispelling boredom. When students are given challenges in a comfortable context, they usually react enthusiastically. Of course, for these activities to be effective, the teacher needs that energy and enthusiasm as well. The teacher will find that students welcome such activities as part of their language program. Used appropriately, language sports encourage communication and make organized language learning more satisfying.

APPENDIX

Sample Questions for Communication Baseball

(Note: the difficulty of questions will depend on the students' proficiencies)

Single questions

1. Is 17 larger than 50? (no)
2. What is the sixth letter of the alphabet? (f)
3. What is the opposite of dark? (light)
4. Shake my hand. (a command requiring an action)
5. How old is your wife/husband?
6. How long have you worked for______?
7. What do you like to do in your spare time?
8. What is your boss' name?

Double questions

1. Show me your driver's license. (a command requiring an action)
2. Show me your wife's driver's license. (a 'curveball': the correct response would normally be that he doesn't have it)
3. With what do you blink? (your eyes)
4. What is an antonym of 'love'? (hate)
5. What is a synonym of company? (corporation, firm...)
6. Complete this proverb: "Time is______." (money)
7. What should I do if I say something rude to you? (apologize)
8. Can you read a book with your ears closed? (a curveball)

Triple questions

1. Sit down, put your right hand on your right hip and your left hand on your right shoulder. (a command requiring action–good at the regular pace and as a fastball)
2. Can you read upside down? (if the student says yes, make him or her prove it)
3. Explain the difference between prejudice and discrimination. (The former refers to an attitude or frame of mind while the latter describes an action)
4. Is the next sentence grammatically correct? "If I was you, I would buy a computer." (no, though 'was' is sometimes used in place of 'were' in casual spoken speech) If the teacher wants to make it more difficult, he or she can have the student correct the sentence.

Home run questions

1. Is this room lit by incandescent or fluorescent lights? An additional question might be to describe the difference between the two.

2. What is the smallest room in the world? (a mushroom–any riddle fits very well here)
3. What does the proverb "Don't count your chickens until they're hatched" mean?
4. What are the three biggest problems in your company or country?
5. How would you solve one of those problems?

Conversational Sports

Beverley Curran and Steve Mierzejewski

The following three ideas all have the same goal–to get students talking. The first game, Conversational Tennis, is played one-on-one. The object is to improve fluency and conversational strategies. The goal is the same in the next game, Conversational Volleyball, but it is played with teams, rather than individually. Finally, we would like to present some variations on Keith Maurice's previous Bright Idea, "Communication Baseball."[1]

Conversational Tennis

Conversational Tennis is designed to increase fluency in one-on-one conversations and to give students an awareness of conversational strategies. It can be used with students at all levels.

Before playing, it should be stressed that the purpose of the game is to help them respond more quickly in English and learn conversational strategies. The procedure is as follows:

1) Each student writes two or three topics on separate pieces of paper. If they have trouble thinking of topics, they may write simple nouns. When the students have finished, the teacher collects the pieces of paper. These are the topics to be used in the game.

2) Two students of equal ability are chosen to play an exhibition game. One student is given a topic, and he or she serves by starting a conversation on that topic. The other student must reply within 5 seconds, or the opponent gets a point. A *non-sequitur* response also scores a point for the opponent. A game is generally played to three points. The value of the topic can be changed (three, four, or five points) to make the game more exciting and provide for the possibility of a come-from-behind win.

3) The time limit is arbitrary. It can be adjusted according to the level of the class.

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[1] See "Communication Baseball" (Keith Maurice) in this issue.

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4) The teacher is the referee. If the conversation becomes 'unnatural,' the referee stops the contest and awards a point to the opposition.

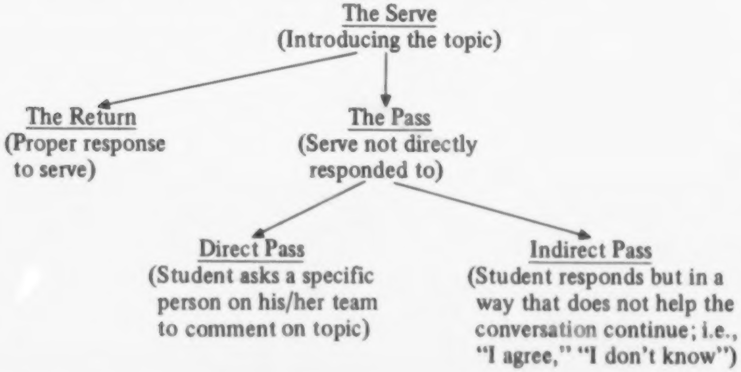
5) The referee can adjust the difficulty of a game by using discretion when judging whether a conversation is 'natural' or not. The time clock can also be ignored to help keep the underdog in the game. For large classes, a third student may serve as referee and time keeper. This student may also make comments and suggestions concerning conversational strategies after the match.

It is helpful to explain that the server should not continue to ask questions which are easy for the opponent to answer.[2] The students should be reminded that in natural conversations there are patterns other than question-answer, question-answer.

Conversational Volleyball

Conversational Volleyball was devised for students who have good English speaking ability but are reluctant to use this ability in group settings. It provides conversation management within a competitive team setting. This setting prepares the students for fast-paced conversations by speeding up their responses.

If students have a clear idea of the game of volleyball, the teacher's explanation of this activity will be greatly simplified. In volleyball there is the serve, the pass, and the return. These elements are directly transferred to the conversational game. The following diagram presents the game in its basic form.


The Serve
(Introducing the topic)
The Return
(Proper response to serve)
The Pass
(Serve not directly responded to)
Direct Pass
(Student asks a specific person on his/her team to comment on topic)
Indirect Pass
(Student responds but in a way that does not help the conversation continue; i.e., "I agree," "I don't know")

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[2] For a discussion of questioning strategies, see "Maintaining Conversations with Open Questions" (Marsha Chan and Kathryn Underdal) in this issue.

Time Limit: All responses (returns or passes) must be made within a previously agreed upon time limit. Once a student is speaking, time is not a factor and a student can speak for any length of time. Time limits should be adjusted to class level. Advanced students may want to attempt time limits approaching the pause length found in native speaker conversations (approximately two seconds). The teacher should use visible hand signals to count the seconds so that students are aware of the amount of time that has passed.

The Serve: Initially the teacher should serve the topic to one team. Anyone on that team may respond. The first topics should be simple (for example, "I think the most beautiful place in Japan is . . .") but may, once the game is learned, become as difficult as "What is your opinion on capital punishment?" Eventually, each team can devise their own topics to serve. Certainly these topics should not be so esoteric as to prevent a return (for example, "What do you think about the current plight of the semiconductor industry?"), and students should realize this limitation. The teacher is the judge and must determine if any serve is "out of bounds."

The Return: Any proper response, comment, or question on the topic constitutes a proper return. Conversationally speaking, the return should in some way contribute to the continuation of the conversation. Again, the teacher should judge which are or are not proper responses. A student may single out a member of the opposing team to "hit" his return to (for example, "I think Kyoto is the most beautiful place in Japan, what do you think Mr. X?").

The Pass: 1) Direct Pass–One member of a team, unable to think of a response but desiring to continue the conversation (to prevent his team from losing a point), may "save" the conversation by asking a fellow teammate his or her opinion. This should be done using phrases such as "I'm not sure. Could you answer that, Toshi?" The person chosen may return the ball or pass it to another teammate. As in volleyball, only three hits are allowed on a side, so the second person passed to must respond in a way which returns the ball or a point is lost.

2) Indirect Pass (save)–This is a true save in that one person merely keeps the ball alive so that someone else may hit it or pass it. Comments such as "I don't know," "I agree," or "Let me see,"

simply save the conversation but do not contribute to its continuance.

The teacher should point to the side which has the ball. This enables the respondants to see whether what they said returned the ball or not. Once the students get the feel of the game, the teacher will find that he or she is, in reality, guiding the conversation through simple use of a series of hand signals. Points are scored when one team fails to respond appropriately within the allotted time. A game can be from three to five points.

Variations on Communication Baseball

"Communication Baseball" was adapted for an upper basic/ lower intermediate class to encourage fluency, practice listening comprehension, speed up responses to questions, and to encourage grammatical accuracy. To do this, the use of the time limit was changed. The time limit was useful to encourage the use of conversational gambits such as "Could you repeat that please?" in place of silence. However, a time limit was not used after the question was repeated or clarified because the pressure of answering quickly inhibited accuracy.

The game can be played effectively with three per team, with the teacher playing the role of pitcher. This arrangement makes it necessary for at least one player to request an "extra base hit" in order to bring his teammate home. If the game is played with four persons per team, one of the students should serve as pitcher. Questions and answers can be written on colour-coded cards and placed in a box. Thus, selection is random and the correct answer is readily available to the pitcher.

When both the batter and the opposing team are unable to answer a question correctly, the pitcher should announce the correct answer. A "foul ball" rule can also be established which allows the teacher to act as an umpire and which gives the students a chance to self-correct an error in grammar or syntax.

As a follow-up to "Communication Baseball" students can write as many questions and answers as they can remember. Alternatively, they can be given a list of the questions for review.

Rod Baseball

Developed by Francis Bailey
Written by Paul Lehnert

Purpose

Rod Baseball is an activity designed to give students the opportunity to practice using modals and conditionals. Cuisinaire rods (colored pieces of wood in different sizes) are used to represent a baseball field and players. Situations (literally, baseball plays) are then set up that require students to use modals that suggest obligatory (must/have to), optional (can/could/might), or recommended (should) behaviour. Situations are also set up in which conditional structures (with modals embedded) can be used.

Rod Baseball has been used in small classes of lower to upper intermediate students. The exercise can be used to either introduce modals or to reinforce them in conjunction with conditional structures. Because it has been used in Japan where the majority of the students are familiar with baseball, it was not necessary to go over the rules of the game. In a different situation the teacher would either have to elaborate on the rules, or adapt the exercise to a game known to the students.

Procedures

The teacher begins by laying out the rods in the shape of a baseball diamond with a team in the field and one at bat. For example, white rods can be used to represent the four bases. Yellow rods can be the base lines. Red rods can represent the team in the field. A pink rod can be the batter. As the teacher is setting up the field, it might be beneficial to go over relevant baseball vocabulary (position names, bases, base runner, left field, bunt, intentional walk, and so on) because having to introduce or clarify these terms later can slow down the "game" considerably. As many students

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are very familiar with the game, they usually understand the implications of various situations. The teacher then explains the first situation and illustrates it by moving the rods around the field. Students are then asked questions about the situation. They reply using the target structures:

T: A runner is on first base and a long pop fly is hit into left field. What can the batter do?
S: He must run to first base.
T: What could the runner do?
S: He could run to second base. He might wait at first base.
T: What should he do?
S: He should wait at first base.

From this modal usage students can usually see the differences in meaning between the modals. The teacher then sets up a few more situations (for example, a long fly ball with a man on third, a squeeze bunt, or a double play situation) and asks the same type of question as in the previous example. When the teacher feels that the students understand, they are asked to set up their own situations. Students familiar with baseball can usually think of many good situations. Even if the teacher is not familiar with baseball, the activity is able to progress smoothly.

Similar situations can be used with the conditional:

T: There is a runner on first and one out. If the batter hits a fly ball, what will happen? If he hits a grounder, what will happen?
S: If he hits a ground ball, the shortstop will/could/might/should/would catch it and go for a double play.

Students can also be asked to develop their own strategies by putting them into the position of manager:

T: If you were the manager of the team in the field, what would you do?
S: I'd move the players for a right field hit.
T: If you were the manager of the batting team, what would you do now?
S: I'd have the batter try a squeeze bunt.

This continues, with the two managers giving a strategy to counter the opposition. Past modals can also be practiced by putting the entire exercise into the past tense:

T: Yesterday, there was a game between the Tigers and the Whales. The Whales won, 2-1. With two outs and a man on base, the lead batter popped out to center field. What might have happened if he hadn't popped out?

S: The Tigers might have been able to win. The second batter might have got a hit.

If you are teaching in a situation where not everyone is familiar with baseball, you can ask the students who understand the game to explain it to those who do not (or to a teacher). If there are enough students, they can be divided into two groups: one group works on the basic rules of baseball and the other group prepares an explanation of an inning of baseball. They can use the rods to explain the general outline of the game. This gives the students the opportunity to explain something in a realistic situation and also to practice using gambits of clarification and repetition. It could also be used to teach sequence:

> First the shortstop throws to second base. Then, the second baseman throws to first base, and the result is a double play.

This exercise has been used extensively and with great success. The students have a chance to use authentic language in a situation which they understand and are interested in. Although the target language is modals and conditionals, other structures such as probability and passives often arise. Batter up!

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Book Reviews

THE INPUT HYPOTHESIS: ISSUES AND IMPLICATIONS. Stephen D. Krashen. New York: Longman, 1985. Pp. 120.

This is the latest in a series of articles and books by the originator of perhaps the most well-known theory of second language acquisition. Krashen calls the Input Hypothesis "the most important part of the theory" (p.vii). Briefly, it states that language is acquired only through the understanding of meaningful messages or "comprehensible input." Other hypotheses linked to this theory are the Acquisition-Learning Hypothesis, which separates conscious learning from subconscious acquisition; the Natural Order Hypothesis, which states that the rules of a language are acquired in a predictable sequence; the Monitor Hypothesis, which proposes that a learner consciously concerned with language production relies more on learned rules; and the Affective Filter Hypothesis, which states that all input is modified by the emotional or psychological state of the learner.

The book is divided into three main parts; "The Input Hypothesis," "Some Current Issues," and "Implications." There is little differentiation between parts one and two, however, as both, in essence, present support for the Input Hypothesis against counter claims. The first part, though, does present a detailed look at the hypothesis in the light of what is known about language acquisition, while the second more directly answers research which is said to be evidence against the Input Hypothesis. The third part, Implications, moves the hypothesis into the classroom and presents a program for its application to various teaching situations.

The tone of the book is decidedly defensive. From the beginning, it is clear that the book was written in an attempt to defend the Input Hypothesis and Krashen's second language acquisition theory from increasing attack. There is nothing particularly wrong with this approach, of course. The critical reader must only shift his focus and be guided by the question: Is the position adequately and fairly defended? That is, are the opposing views clearly and accurately given and is the defense made in a logical manner? Unfortunately Krashen's defense does not meet this criteria.

One soon finds that neither Krashen's defense of his own theory nor his attacks on contrasting theories are adequate. When he attacks the "learning becomes acquisition" theory, more commonly known as the information processing model of learning, Krashen claims that the proponents of this theory "provide no real evidence for it" (p.41). Yet, in reality, there has been a great deal of evidence provided in support of the information processing model dating from before its formulation by Craik and Lockhart in 1972. (See also LaBerge and Samuels, 1974, Shiffrin and Schneider, 1977, as cited in Byrnes and Wingfield, 1981; and as related to Krashen's theory, McLaughlin, 1978, McLaughlin, Rossman, and McLeod, 1983, cited in Krashen, 1985.) But Krashen either is not aware of this evidence, refuses to recognize it as "real evidence," or chooses not to talk about it.

Krashen's argument is laden with contradictory statements. As another reason for rejecting the "learning becomes acquisition" model, Krashen states that "it violates Occam's Razor, the principle in science that the simplest solution to account for the data is the best solution and closer to reality" (p.41). In terms of the Input Hypothesis, Krashen states that "There is no need to add anything to it . . . there is nothing the current theory cannot handle on its own" (p.41), implying that the Input Hypothesis conforms to Occam's Razor. Yet Krashen weakens his own argument when he immediately contradicts Occam's Razor himself by adding another hypothesis to his already heavily laden theory of second language acquisition. The new hypothesis is called the Output Filter, which Krashen felt was necessary to "strengthen" the Input Hypothesis (p.14). "When current theory is unable to accommodate phenomena in a satisfactory way, however, strengthening is required" (p.44). But it is never made clear why Krashen called the Output Filter a "strengthening," while the uniting of acquisition and learning in the information processing model is demeaned as a violation of Occam's Razor.

Maintaining the acquisition-learning dichotomy forces Krashen to take other positions that are becoming more and more untenable in the face of mounting empirical evidence to the contrary. There is, for example, simply too much evidence against Krashen's position that a learner's first language does not affect his learning of a second language. Language transfer in all linguistic domains has been shown to exist, despite Krashen's assertion in the glossary that "this term does not exist in current theory" (p.102). Krashen admits, however, that if transfer exists then pure acquisition of a second language becomes an impossibility. Some learning via the application of previously learned rules must be taking place. In addition, language transfer supports hypothesis testing as perhaps a more viable theory of language learning. That is, one tests hypotheses about the target language through structures and strategies already learned in the first language. When these hypotheses test positive, they are retained in the learner's interlanguage.

Hypothesis testing also explains the concept of fossilization. If a particular hypothesis appears to be understood by a native speaker, it is retained in the learner's interlanguage even though it may contain linguistically incorrect elements. Most native speakers are reluctant to correct each and every mistake made by non-native speakers (Day et al. 1982), and they do so only when meaning is in question. But without such close correction, errors will stabilize in the learner's interlanguage. In time such errors will be ineradicable, and the student is then said to have fossilized in that linguistic area of his interlanguage.

Thus, the question of error correction in the classroom becomes an important issue. Krashen discourages error correction. For him, communicative competence is the most important goal of instruction. But Krashen seems to disregard the opinions of other researchers such as Vigil and Oller (Vigil and Oller 1976), who suggest that perhaps fossilization can only be destabilized by bringing those errors that are out of conscious awareness directly to the learner's attention, thereby forcing the learner to monitor the production of certain linguistic components. Eventually, through mechanisms suggested by Information Processing Theory, such monitoring will become automatized and deviant forms will be replaced.

The intricate linking of all of the above elements is based upon the conscious use of hypothesis testing to develop one's speaking ability. Krashen, however, accepts hypothesis testing only as a "subconscious" process that "does not require production, nor does it involve communicative success" (p.36). It is not clear why Krashen would retain the concept of hypothesis testing at all, since he has chosen to give it such a useless role.

If hypothesis testing does not lead to fossilization, how is the phenomenon explained? In *The Input Hypothesis*, Krashen does deal with the fossilization issue, but he explains it as being caused by a "lack of good comprehensible input" (p.48). Thus, nothing is really explained. Question: Why does a student fossilize? Answer: Due to a lack of comprehensible input. Question: How do I know what is comprehensible input? Answer: When the student fossilizes you will know that the input to him has not been comprehensible.

Krashen uses this circular reasoning throughout the book wherever he tries to counter research which tends to detract from his theory. For example, Krashen states "other methods that have been compared to traditional approaches and demonstrated to be *significantly* and *clearly* better are Terrell's Natural Approach . . . and Lozanov's Suggestopedia" (p.14) (emphasis mine). Yet research conducted by Wagner and Tilney in 1983 which compared Superlearning (Suggestopedia) with more traditional classroom methods found that "those subjects taught by traditional methods learned significantly more vocabulary than those taught according to Superlearning principles" (Richards 1984). Krashen's comment on this research (found in the footnotes at the end of the chapter) is that "this study does not, in my opinion, provide any kind of test of Suggestopedia or Superlearning. The most obvious flaw was that only vocabulary was involved, while the essential ingredient for language acquisition, comprehensible input, was completely lacking." Yet, Suggestopedia's main claim is its ability to teach a large number of vocabulary items in a relatively short period of time. It would seem to me that to challenge Suggestopedia on one of its strongest points is more than fair. Using Krashen's logic, the implication must be that since more learning took place through traditional methods, those methods and not Suggestopedia contained more comprehensible input, at least in the area of vocabulary.

In fact, this is exactly how Krashen explained a study conducted by Higgs and Clifford (1981). "Higgs and Clifford note that individuals who have had formal classes are less prone to early fossilization. The theory predicts that these classes helped because they provided good comprehensible input . . ." (p.48). If learning takes place in a way that is not predicted by the Natural Approach, Krashen claims that there really *was* comprehensible input. But if learning does not take place as expected, then Krashen claims there was simply not enough comprehensible input. Thus, there is no escape from Krashen's circular reasoning. Comprehensible input can apparently be used to explain the results of any research.

These questions bring us to the true crux of the matter. Just what precisely *is* comprehensible input? Krashen defines it simply as "messages the acquirer is able to understand" (p.101). But how does this help us as teachers? How can we be sure that what we teach lives up to this standard? The problems of delineating comprehensibility or meaningfulness have been dealt with in other places and I do not wish to go into much detail here other than to say that the elusive nature of its description renders the concept itself empty and meaningless. Even with frequent needs analysis, we sometimes fail to touch the meaningful chord. This is due to the unfortunate fact that our students do not always know what messages will carry the most meaning (hence learning) for them. Witness the fact that a store clerk's "What did you say?" will often produce a far greater impact on our learners than all our best laid lesson plans.

There are other drawbacks to *The Input Hypothesis* as well. Krashen's inability to give us a useful definition of comprehensible input is only one of them. Furthermore, Krashen does not offer the reader any proof that "acquisition is . . . the only path to true competence" (p.55). Krashen admits that proof "may be impossible." However, he suggests that this is no reason for not applying the theory: "I think it would be unwise to wait for this kind of progress before considering application of the Input Hypothesis and the theoretical constructs associated with it" (p.68). Krashen then refers to Reynolds (1971) in support of the view that proof need not be necessary. However, I cannot imagine another field in which such an idea would gain credence. If a surgeon informed you that he was trying a new but unproven technique on your kidney, you probably would not like the idea. Of course, the analogy is extreme, but we, as teachers, *are* dealing with the human mind and as true professionals we want to reach that mind in the best ways that we can find, that is, in ways that have been empirically found to be the most effective in producing learning.

In the last section of the book, Krashen deals with the implications of his theory for teachers and specific teaching situations. The suggestions are modest in the light of the anti-grammarian tone of some parts of the book. In fact, one may be surprised to see grammar playing such a strong role in Krashen's programs. This, for example, is the outline for a university ESL program:

I. General language teaching (often done in home country)
  A. Natural Approach: focus on topics of general interest
  B. Grammar study for Monitor use
II. Sheltered subject-matter teaching
  A. Early: short courses in areas of interest e.g. computer operation, maths review, typing
  B. Grammar study
    1. continued study for Monitor use
    2. as subject matter (linguistics)
III. Partial mainstream: courses in area of specialization (p.76)

The program seems practical and well-balanced. I do, however, question its claims that "an adult foreign-language student, for example, who completes a year of Natural Approach Spanish at the university will be able to converse comfortably with a native speaker (who adjusts his speaking a bit to the level of the student) on a variety of everyday topics" (p.71). Krashen then qualifies this. "But our student will have limitations: he will not be able to use the telephone easily, read the classics with comfort, and will certainly not be in a position to study at the University of Mexico. *And it is not clear that more language teaching, even if it is enlightened, will help the situation*" (p.71) (emphasis mine). If this is true, then one might reasonably ask if the program has, indeed, been a success. That is, will an adult student be satisfied with a limited ability to converse on a limited number of everyday topics? If the situation is impervious to further instruction and cannot be improved, have we, in fact, succeeded as teachers? For it is success that is the criterion for judging the practical value of a theory. As Krashen himself notes, "if attempts to apply the theory in practice are not successful, we have good reason to doubt its validity" (p.69).

The Input Hypothesis stems from a theory which states that there is an acquisition/learning distinction and that acquisition is better. Krashen has attempted to fit scientific and empirical data to his theory rather than having the scientific and empirical data supply the momentum for his theory's alteration. This lack of a dynamic communication between research and Krashen's ideas appears to have led to the current plight of the Input Hypothesis.

But even beyond this problem of research interpretation, Krashen and other pure acquisitionists will continue to be haunted by the problem of totally separating acquisition from learning.

For in order to make acquisition distinct from learning, some subconscious mechanism of language intake must be posited. But by its very nature, a pure subconscious process is impossible to prove. Conscious learning is undisputed even by Krashen. But what is "subconscious learning" or acquisition, and how does it work?

This book never attempts to delve into an explanation of the mechanics of acquisition. Though the key to this type of learning is said to be comprehensible input, it is not explained how such input is subconsciously processed or why it is critical. No connection is made to current brain research. Much is left to be accepted on faith. In the glossary, for example, one may be surprised to find that applied linguistics is "of limited value in pedagogy" (p.100), yet one is never told why we should accept this sanction.

This brings up an important point. The reader is well-advised to read both the footnotes and the glossary in this book. Much of the "battle" is waged in these zones (of the 99 pages of the text, 30 of them are in the form of footnotes in fine print). Again, the reader should be cautious of the interpretation of some of the research mentioned here. Personal scrutiny of the original research is advised.

With all its limitations, what is the future of the Input Hypothesis? If Krashen continues to hold to untenable positions, he will be forced into more and more extreme defenses. Such defenses would complete the undermining of his theory's credibility. If comprehensible input is a key element in language learning, then the reason for this must be clearly explained. It is not axiomatic. Instead of attaching new hypotheses to the theory to explain conflicting data, perhaps it might be better for Krashen to fill in the gaps in the theory as it now exists. Can it be connected to neurolinguistic data? Can it incorporate language transfer? Can it fit into a model of conscious learning while maintaining its distinct flavor? A consolidation of the elements of Krashen's theory with the more viable elements of other theories would be an important advance in second language learning and teaching.

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BASICS IN LISTENING: SHORT TASKS FOR LISTENING DEVELOPMENT. Hiroshi Asano, Munetsugu Uruno, and Michael Rost. Tokyo: Lingual House, 1985. Student Workbook. Pp. 77; Teacher's Manual. Pp. 148; and 3 Cassettes.

Basics in Listening is the latest in a series of listening courses from Lingual House Publishing Company. According to the authors, it is designed to help beginning students develop listening skills such as "following instructions, taking messages, understanding descriptions, solving arithmetic and spatial problems, making inferences and noting main ideas and themes." It is successful in all of these areas, though it would be better described as a course for false beginners, i.e., students who have some experience in reading, writing, and translation but little experience in conversation. I had an opportunity to use the course with adult Japanese students who scored between 50 and 150 for the listening segment of the TOEIC exam. The class met twice per week for two hours each session. In general the course was quite successful and easy to use.[1]

Basics in Listening includes a workbook divided into twenty-five units of three sections each, an instruction manual with tapescripts, exercise answers and suggestions for additional exercises, and three sixty-minute tapes with a variety of native speaker dialects. The course is obviously made for Japanese EFL students. Though the workbook and tapes use only English, the instruction manual is bilingual and some of the units use phonemic contrasts especially targeted at Japanese students of English. Nevertheless, the course is suitable to most adult English language learners.

Each unit is designed to be completed in one class hour, that is, each section of a unit takes 10–15 minutes. These are preceded by a five minute preview of selected vocabulary items which are to be introduced by the teacher. Along with suggestions for introducing this vocabulary, the instruction manual also provides follow up activities to reinforce the material in each unit. My class had no difficulty completing the initial units in 40–50 minutes, but the later units often required a full hour due to the necessity of repeated playing of the more difficult segments of the tape.

Basics in Listening avoids faults which can be found in many other listening courses for beginning EFL/ESL students. All such courses are obliged to make some concessions for speed and vocabulary selection. However, there is a point at which such concessions become patronizing. More important than this insult to the maturity of adult students is the fact that language learned in this way is useless, since students are not likely to hear such utterances outside of their language laboratory headphones.

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[1] I was also able to test final units of the course with students who scored between 200 and 235 for the listening segment of the TOEIC. For these students, the course seemed quite easy.

The concessions which are made in *Basics in Listening* are of the order which would normally be made by native speakers communicating with non-native speakers. Phonological concessions are minimized in favor of lexical, syntactic, and semantic concessions. In most listening segments, speed is only somewhat reduced and there are slight pauses between syntactic units. Vowel neutralization and reduced forms are limited in the initial units. Lexical range is controlled and carefully previewed prior to each exercise. Syntax is simplified by using shorter phrase structures. From unit to unit and, within each unit, from the first section to the third section, there is a progression from easier to more difficult language, from greater to lesser concessions. The final sections of later units approach normal enunciation.

There are usually contextual clues to assist students in coping with these minimal concessions and easing the transition from simpler to more difficult passages. For example, the elision of the subject and copula in (1) below is presented in a clear visual and lexical context.

(1) The egg is in the cup.
The egg's in the cup.
[ðə egz in ðə kʌp]
(2) The eggs are next to the cup.
[ðə egz ɑːr nekst tuː ðə kʌp]

Students are presented with pictures of various arrangements of eggs and cups. They must select one of two pictures which corresponds to a description on the tape. Since students are already familiar with the prepositions 'in' and 'next to' from a previous exercise, it is easy for them to recognize that the same phone [z] can be used to mean either the copula 'is' or 'plurality'. In fact, my students spontaneously asked about this ambiguity, and the resulting discussion prepared them for dealing with other kinds of reductions which came up in subsequent exercises.

Although most of the exercises are well-organized, a few abandon the use of multiple contextual clues. Students may be asked to identify a specific lexical item or syntactic structure in a series of semantically unrelated sentences. One section of a unit concentrating on question formation illustrates this lapse. The first series below is a transcript of part of a series of ten brief dialogues which students hear on the tape. In their workbooks, students must identify the interrogative pronoun used by choosing one of two written options. Because this series is a well-connected progression which develops a kind of story, it is relatively easy for them to select the correct choice despite the minimal phonological concessions made by the speakers on the tape.

1. A: She gave me something.
   B: What?
   A: This envelope.
2. A: I have to give it to someone.
   B: Who?
   A: You.
3. A: There's something inside it.
   B: What?
   A: A letter.

However, this series of ten dialogues is followed by a second series of near random dialogues. As in the previous exercise, students are presented with multiple choice options of possible referents for the statement and question that they hear on the tape.

1. A: I saw a very famous person yesterday.
   B: Who?
2. A: Let's go out tonight.
   B: Where to?
3. A: I'd like some coffee please.
   B: When?

Although this latter series lacks the multiple contextual clues of the first series, it has the merit of requiring students to think in terms of possible responses to segments of language rather than merely identify lexical items or strings which have been heard. This constitutes a first step toward developing active strategies demanded by genuine communication. Further, although the first series constitutes a connected series by which students can delimit and anticipate a subsequent iteration of the series, it is scarcely an example of authentic speech. Though the importance of context for language acquisition is evident, it is not clear that contrived clues are more beneficial in the long run than the less coherent signals of authentic communication. Indeed, considering the beginning student's limited comprehension, authentic speech, with its many false starts, ellipses and colloquialisms, may be better approximated by the latter series above. To construct a context for this series, while maintaining the focus on question formation, would probably entail so many contrivances as to undercut the overall goal of *Basics in Listening*–to expose beginning students to authentic listening tasks to the greatest extent possible.

The important point here is not the precise combination of phonological, syntactic, and semantic concessions which best determines this extent. This certainly varies from one group of students to another. Rather, in the absence of abundant contextual clues, the minimal phonological concessions made some of the exercises too difficult for my students, especially beyond the first six units. The increase in difficulty from the first section to the third section of a unit sometimes outpaced the progress of the students. As mentioned above, I found that more class time was required to complete a unit as the course progressed. Indeed, it was necessary to abandon the third section of some units and reserve it for a review lesson at a later stage in the course. The authors anticipate this possibility and suggest that lessons may be taught in a variety of sequences, e.g., 1:1, 1:2, 1:3, 2:1, 2:2, etc., or 1:1, 2:1, 3:1, 1:2, 2:2, etc. This certainly adds a degree of flexibility for adjusting to different rates of student progress which many listening courses fail to provide.

These problems of difficulty and pacing were in part due to the limitations of adult education. My students had only moderate motivation to progress and little contact with English outside of the classroom. I think that students enrolled in a full-time curriculum with more frequent exposure to English would not experience these difficulties. In such a curriculum, students could complete two or three units per week. Finally, I would like to emphasize that this problem was a minor one which was easy to work around. I was soon able to anticipate sections which would be too difficult for the students and use this time to review earlier exercises. This modular structure results from the overall curriculum design of the course.

Basics in Listening is based on a notional/functional approach. Each unit has a semantic focus, covering general themes such as spatial relations, comparison, or processes, rather than a syntactic, lexical, or phonological focus.[2] In terms of functional language, each unit exposes students to a range of phrases which may be used to communicate information, opinions, or attitudes about each notion. For example, in the unit on social talk, students listen to phrases which cover a range from strong agreement to ambivalence to strong disagreement.

There are several advantages to this approach. First, it is easy to integrate units with other lessons in a comprehensive curriculum. Though there is a progression from easier to more difficult listening segments from unit to unit, the initial sections of advanced units, e.g., 17:1 or 18:1, are comparable to the advanced sections of initial units, e.g., 7:3 or 8:3. This allows a good deal of flexibility in selecting exercises to compliment conversation, reading, writing, or translation lessons. In the same way, it is easy to use lessons from a general curriculum to compliment and expand units from *Basics in Listening*. In other words, the course can be used to supplement other already established texts in a program or as a central text around which a program may be constructed.

A second advantage of the notional/functional approach is that it teaches students to have a flexible response to listening tasks. All too often, students become quite adept at recognizing a few set phrases, but are unable to comprehend variations of these phrases. Students might do well in a classroom situation exchanging bookish phrases, but be unable to comprehend simple requests by foreign tourists. English is a language of great variety, even for rather set exchanges such as greetings. By introducing students to the concept of functional differences and encouraging active listening skills, *Basics in Listening* helps students predict on the basis of semantic context the probable meaning of even previously unheard phrases.

These kinds of skills are especially useful for preparing students to comprehend extended passages of language. Beginning students must use a variety of strategies to overcome listening comprehension limitations in such situations. *Basics in Listening* culminates in three brief lectures on New Zealand, Canada, and Ireland. Although exercises for these lectures merely require students to complete a table of information, they represent an initial and important step towards comprehending general discussions of any kind.

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[2] However, there are two units devoted specifically to verb tenses and phonological contrasts.

Finally, the exercises in *Basics in Listening* are interesting. This point should not be underestimated. Learning a language involves a lot of drudgery. Although *Basics in Listening* uses many typical exercise patterns such as multiple choice questions and cloze exercises, there are also exercises which entail drawing pictures, circling dates on a calendar, or labeling diagrams. There is enough visual variety to prevent the listening component of this course from becoming a mere adjunct to reading comprehension of the workbook. The subject matter is topical without being so culture specific that the bulk of the class becomes a teacher-centered explanation of obscure bits of trivia. In short, my students, who ranged in age from twenty-two to sixty-four, enjoyed working with this text.

In conclusion, *Basics in Listening* is strongly recommended for anyone seeking a listening course for false beginners. It is commendable because it makes minimal language concessions and employs a semantic rather than lexical or syntactic focus for the lessons. Both of these features prepare students for dealing with authentic language and real communication.

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Announcements

Call for Papers: **MITESOL NEWSLETTER**. The *MITESOL Newsletter* is now accepting contributions of articles which contribute to the field of foreign and second language teaching and learning in both the theoretical and practical domains, especially in the following areas: 1) curriculum, methods, and techniques; 2) classroom observation; 3) teacher education and teacher training; 4) cross-cultural studies; 5) language learning and acquisition; 6) overviews of, or research in related fields; 7) book reviews. Articles should be no longer than 1,200 words. All copy must be typed and double-spaced. Please note that articles will not be returned. All articles and inquiries should be directed to: Donna Brigman, Editor, *MITESOL Newsletter*, 211 Oakwood, Ypsilanti, MI 48197, U.S.A.

TESOL SUMMER INSTITUTE. July 7-August 15, 1986; Honolulu, Hawaii. The 1986 TESOL Summer Institute will be held at the University of Hawaii, Hawaii. At least half of the courses will run the full six weeks. Intensive three-week courses will run from July 7-25 and July 28-August 15. For additional information, please write: Pamela Pine, Assistant Director, TESOL Summer Institute, Department of English as a Second Language, University of Hawaii, 1890 East-West Road, Honolulu, Hawaii 96822, U.S.A.

JALT '86. November 22-24, 1986; Hamamatsu, Japan. The Japan Association of Language Teachers (JALT) will hold its Twelfth Annual Conference on Language Teaching and Learning in Hamamatsu, Japan. The Conference will feature over two hundred workshops, demonstrations, and papers dealing with a wide range of topics relevant to language teaching, learning, and acquisition. For further information, please contact: JALT, c/o Kyoto English Center, Sumitomo Seimei Bldg. 8F, Shijo-Karasuma Nishi-iru, Shimogyo-ku, Kyoto 600, Japan.

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TEACHER-TRAINING SEMINARS. August 20-24, 26-30; Odawara, Japan. The M.A.T. Program of the School for International Training (SIT) will offer seminars concerning the implementation of innovative approaches in the classroom (focusing on CLL and the Silent Way), and teacher training and supervision, giving participants a chance to design and conduct training sessions. The four- or five-day residential programs will be limited in size and to experienced teachers. Graduate credit is available. For further information and alumni, please phone The Center: (06) 315-0848 or Japan Language Forum: (03) 719-4991.

RSA TUTOR'S CONFERENCE. September 18-21, 1986; Dartington, South Devon, England. The RSA Diploma TEFL Tutor's Conference will be held in Dartington, South Devon, England. For more details, please contact: Rod Bolitho, South Devon College of Arts and Technology, Newton Road, Torquay, Devon, England.

SCOLT/FFLA CONFERENCE. October 16-18, 1986; Sheraton World Hotel, Orlando, Florida. The Southern Conference on Language Teaching and Florida Foreign Language Association will hold a conference on the theme of planning for proficiency in Orlando, Florida. For more information, please contact: Christa Kirby, Pinellas County Schools, Largo C & I Center, Largo, Florida 33540.

MIDWEST TESOL. November 6-8, 1986; Ann Arbor, Michigan. The sixth annual Midwest Regional TESOL Conference will be held in Ann Arbor, Michigan. For details, please contact: Leslie L. Prast, English Division, Delta College, University Center, Michigan 48710. Telephone: (517) 686-9102.

TRENDS IN LANGUAGE PROGRAMME EVALUATION. December 9-11, 1986; Bangkok, Thailand. Chulalongkorn University Language Institute is sponsoring a conference with the topic of Trends in Language Programme Evaluation in Bangkok, Thailand. Speakers include regional experts and experts from the United States and Great Britain. For more information, please contact: Chulalongkorn University, Language Institute, Prem Purachatra Building, Phyathai Road, Bangkok 10500, Thailand.

SUMMER WORKSHOP FOR JAPANESE TEACHERS OF ENGLISH. August 10-15, 1986; Odawara, Japan. The Language Institute of Japan (LIOJ) is holding its Eighteenth Annual Summer Workshop for Japanese Teachers of English in Odawara, Japan. This week-long residential workshop will include language study, special lectures and programs, and seminars on a variety of teaching methods and techniques. For more information, please contact: Language Institute of Japan, 4-14-1 Shiroyama, Odawara, Kanagawa 250, Japan. Telephone: (0465) 23-1677.

TESOL '87. April 22-25, 1987; Miami, Florida. The Twenty-First Annual TESOL Convention will be held at the Fontainebleau Hilton in Miami, Florida.

For more information, please contact: Lydia Stack, TESOL Central Office, 1118-22nd Street, NW Suite 205, Washington, D.C. 20037.

Call for Participation: The Twenty-First Annual TESOL Conference is accepting abstracts for possible presentations at the 1987 TESOL Conference. Deadline is July 15, 1987. For more information, please contact: Lydia Stack, TESOL Central Office, 1118-22nd Street, NW Suite 205, Washington, D.C. 20037.

Call for Papers: **CROSS CURRENTS.** *Cross Currents* welcomes manuscripts concerning all aspects of second language teaching and learning. We are now particularly interested in: 1) two to three page sketches concerning experiences teaching English in developing countries (deadline October 15th); 2) articles concerned with cross-cultural communication; 3) practical ideas for classroom use; and 4) book reviews. Please direct all manuscripts and inquiries to: General Editor, *Cross Currents*, 4-14-1 Shiroyama, Odawara, Kanagawa 250, Japan.

LIOJ *THE LANGUAGE INSTITUTE OF JAPAN*

The Language Institute of Japan (LIOJ) is a nonprofit language school located in Odawara, specializing in intensive, month-long residential English programs for Japanese businessmen and professionals. In addition, the school offers classes in English to the citizens of the Odawara area. Annually, the school offers a week-long summer workshop for Japanese teachers of English. All of the programs at LIOJ are designed to help promote better cross-cultural communication and to encourage international understanding. Inquiries concerning LIOJ should be directed to: The Language Institute of Japan, 4-14-1 Shiroyama, Odawara, Kanagawa 250, Japan.

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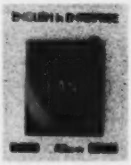

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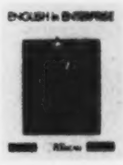

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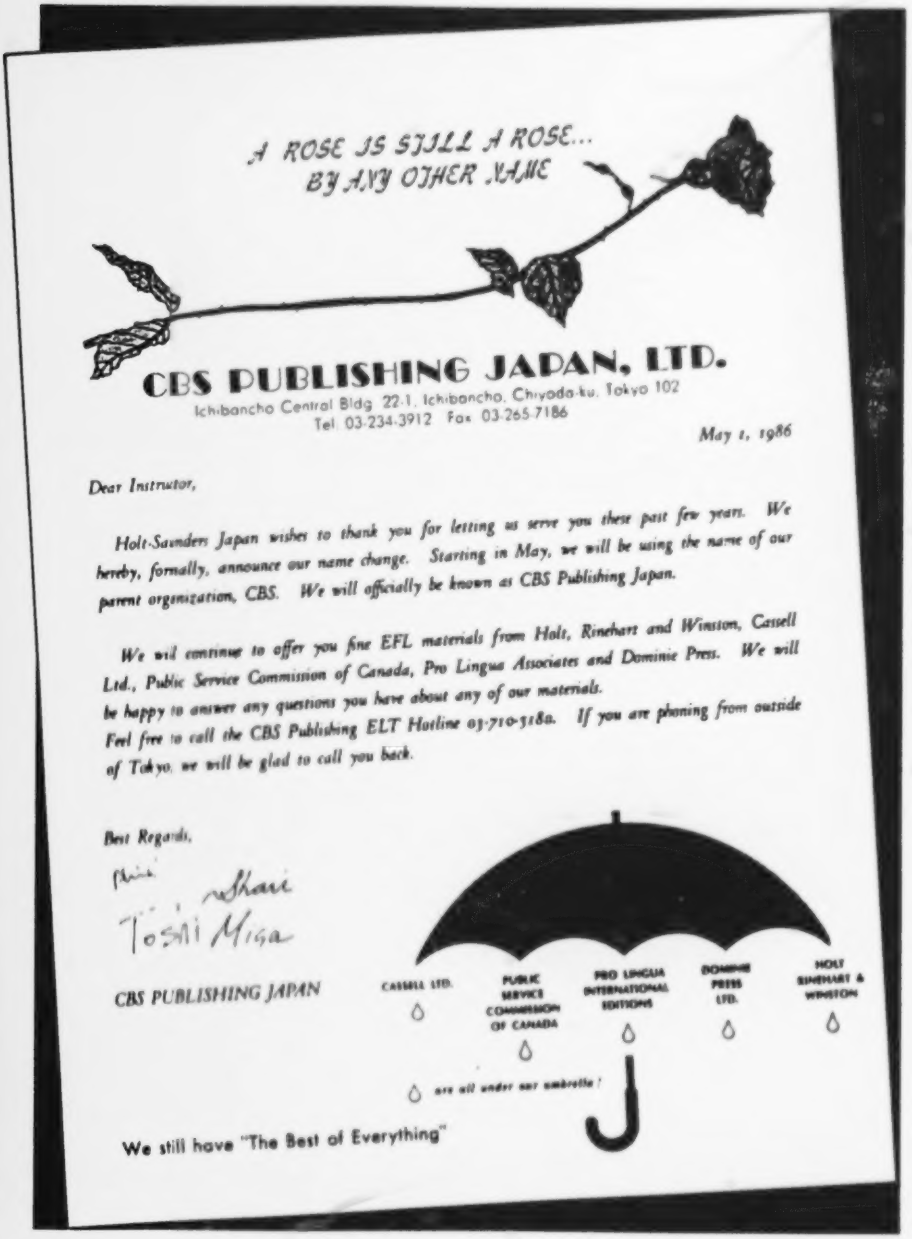

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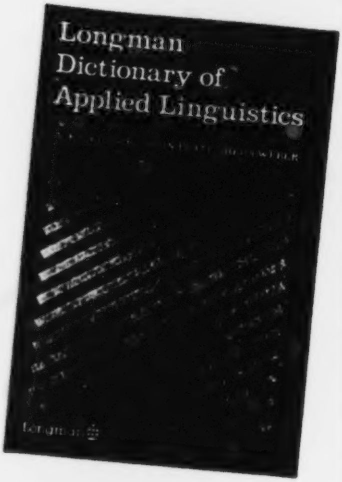

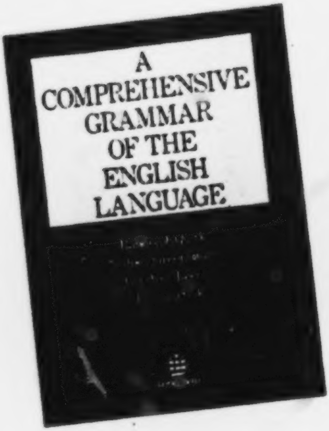

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ABOUT *CROSS CURRENTS*

Cross Currents is a biannual journal published by the Language Institute of Japan in an effort to contribute to an interdisciplinary exchange of ideas within the areas of communication, language skills acquisition and instruction, and cross-cultural training and learning. We are especially interested in articles on: 1) Language teaching and learning, especially regarding English as a Second/Foreign Language and English as an International Language; 2) Language teaching and learning as they apply to the situation in Japan; and 3) Cross-cultural communication issues. We also welcome reviews of recently published books in these areas.

Cross Currents was first published in 1972 with an emphasis on Japan and Japanese students of English. In order to serve the needs of our growing international readership better, we strive to publish articles concerned with teaching methodologies, techniques, and general issues which are multicultural rather than culture-specific. While articles demonstrating solid and thoughtful research are greatly appreciated, always kept in mind is the necessity for readability and practicality for our readers, the classroom teachers. We make every effort to balance abstract and theoretical articles with articles directly applicable to the classroom. Short practical articles are featured in our Bright Ideas section.

* * *

All articles submitted for consideration should be typed, double-spaced, and in duplicate, with references placed in the body of the text in parentheses with the author's last name, date of the work cited, and page number. Footnotes on substantive matters should appear at the bottom of the page on which the footnote occurs. Please include: 1) a paragraph precis of the article, 2) a short biographical sketch, and 3) a bibliography which should conform with *TESOL Quarterly* style. Manuscripts should be 5–20 pages in length. Authors of articles accepted for publication will receive twenty reprints.

Please direct all manuscript correspondence to:

General Editor
Cross Currents
Language Institute of Japan
4-14-1 Shiroyama
Odawara, 250, Japan

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Summaries of the Articles

Using Humanistic Techniques in Writing Class

George Jacobs

In EFL/ESL today, activities which emphasize communication of personal interests are widely used. Unfortunately, this has not yet been transferred to writing class; here, correctness and grammar within artificial topics are usually still stressed over communication. Using humanistic techniques within a process approach to writing offers one way of shifting the focus away from form and grammar to content and communication. This article describes some of the overall benefits of using humanistic techniques in writing class and provides suggestions for applying them in the classroom.

A Comparison Between Chinese and American Greetings in Forms of Address, Greetings and Farewells, and Compliments

Yang Su-ying

Foreign or second language teaching usually focuses on linguistic rules, while rules of language use are neglected. Actually this sociolinguistic aspect is also essential to language learning and should be incorporated into the language classroom. Without the knowledge of rules of speaking, misunderstanding often occurs, even if speech is correct linguistically. As a contribution to language teachers' awareness of the importance of rules of speaking, this article compares American and Chinese cultures in terms of forms of address, greetings and farewells, and compliments.

Beyond the Classroom: Gathering Natural Speech Samples

Patrick Blanche

Although many EFL/ESL students do fine when interacting in the classroom, they have many problems when using English in real situations. They are often not aware of the rules of speaking; for example, when to use formal and informal speech, how to maintain social distance, and when and how to interrupt. In this article, techniques developed by sociolinguists are used to get students interacting with the community outside the classroom. After taping native speakers, suggestions are made for using these truly authentic tapes in the classroom.

Short-Term Study Trips for Young Beginners: Pitfalls and Remedies

Emiko Yukawa

Short-term seminars to English speaking countries have become very popular in Japan and throughout the world. Unfortunately, they do not always achieve their set goals of improving the participants' English and teaching them about another culture. This is especially so for young beginners, who often lack both the socialization skills and the English ability to get the most out of such a trip. In this article, the author discusses the problems she found when organizing such a trip to the United States, and offers some solutions for overcoming them.

Teaching in Developing Countries: a Series of Sketches

Thomas Cope, Joseph Gallagher, Michael Lazarin, Keith Maurice, Theresa H. Molyneux, Carol Rinnert, and Stephen Ziolkowski

This collection of articles on teaching experiences in developing countries represents a diversity of viewpoints, from the philosophical to the pragmatic and from the serious to the light-hearted. In selecting these pieces, the editorial board was looking for cultural and social insights rather than purely academic ones. We wanted personal and subjective reactions to teaching experiences that differed significantly from the teaching situations in most technologically advanced countries. We see this series as a forum to share the initial excitement, fear, confusion, and challenge which is so often experienced by new foreign teachers in developing countries. In many of these countries, no matter what their geographical and political differences, foreign teachers undergo common difficulties, such as being required to teach to a particular test, feeling left out of the normal information flow, and being subjected to mystifying restrictions. In each of the sketches, the author expresses some of his or her initial impressions as well as lessons or insights gleaned through time. It is our hope that becoming aware of some of the common feelings of overseas teachers will help new recruits as well as veterans prepare themselves to make the most of their opportunities for growth in new teaching environments.

Bright Ideas

Writing Like an Author

Curtis W. Hayes, Carolyn Kessler, and Robert Bahruth

When teaching writing, teachers often find that students can write fairly fluently but are far from accurate in form or expression. Increasingly, teachers are finding that no amount of "free writing" can help intermediate to advanced students with this problem. In this Bright Idea, the authors suggest a rejuvenation of sentence combining which will help students both to write with better form and accuracy and to learn about different rhetorical styles of English.

Blackjack

David O'Reilly and Steve Mierzejewski

The English modal system is one of the most difficult structures of the language to teach. One way to help students master it in an interesting and communicative way is by using the card game Blackjack. Both the social interaction value (refusing and giving advice) and the logical probability value (inference, prediction) of modals are illustrated in a way which points out their differences and the proper situations in which to use them. Exercises to review the modals and help prepare students for the game are also presented.

ABOUT THIS ISSUE

The world is more and more concerned with cross-cultural topics. This concern stems from a growing awareness of the significant role cultural differences play in international relations and business. There is a realization that in this increasingly global world, we are going to have to learn to live with these cultural differences.

This concern is mirrored in the microcosm of foreign language teaching. Teachers are becoming more sensitive to the fact that they are teaching "culture" and its values to one degree or another and must explore their feelings about this. Indeed, at the recent 1986 JALT (Japan Association of Language Teachers) conference in Hammamatsu, Japan, a few accusations were made that some ESL/EFL books and teachers tend to impose their own cultural values on their students without consideration for the values of the host country. Several books published recently are concerned with this issue, and there is an increasing emphasis on English as an International Language and its accompanying cultural implications. *Cross Currents* has always been aware of cross-cultural communication, and in this issue it is a major focus.

"Teaching in Developing Countries: a Series of Sketches" is a collection of individual accounts about living and teaching in a variety of developing countries. The series contains valuable insights concerning the maintenance of professional responsibilities and motivation while simultaneously dealing with the frustration and emotional upheaval which can occur when one is immersed in an unfamiliar culture.

The cultural implications underlying a few everyday speech functions are discussed in "A Comparison Between Chinese and American Cultures in Forms of Address, Greetings and Farewells, and Compliments" by Yang Su-ying. Rather than focussing on the linguistic side of these functions, the author shows us how they illustrate the different concepts and values which Americans and Chinese hold. She concludes that we must be more aware of this and suggests that it become part of the foreign language classroom curriculum.

A different aspect of cross-cultural communication is seen in "Short-Term Study Trips for Young Beginners: Pitfalls and Remedies" by Emiko Yukawa. Here, the emphasis is on getting the most out of a short trip to a country with a different language and culture. She contends that many study trips abroad do not meet their set goals of learning more language and experiencing another culture. In this article, Ms. Yukawa relates the problems she encountered while organizing a short trip to the United States and offers us some interesting ideas for overcoming them.

Authentic speech and communicative exercises have both become major parts of many ESL/EFL classrooms. One result of this has been a proliferation of texts and tapes claiming to be communicative and "natural." Unfortunately, many of the tapes that claim this title are in reality composed of staged situations which in no way sound authentic. In "Beyond the Classroom: Gathering Natural Speech Samples," Patrick Blanche presents a way of gathering authentic speech from the surrounding community. His idea not only provides authentic material for the classroom, but also gives students an opportunity to interact with native speakers in a communicative situation. He bases his method on those used by sociolinguists and gives us guidelines for setting up similar projects in Japan or the United States.

In this issue, we have two approaches to teaching writing. In "Using Humanistic Techniques in Writing Class," George Jacobs laments the fact that the communicative approaches often used in regular classrooms are not often carried over to writing and composition classes. This focus on form and grammar rather than content results in badly written and boring papers. He believes that using humanistic techniques can help remedy this and provides both reasons and techniques to use them in the classroom. Curtis Hayes, Carolyn Kessler, and Robert Bahruth, in their Bright Idea, "Writing Like an Author," rejuvenate sentence combining. We are given examples of ways for student writers to use techniques which utilize passages from written work, When working with these passages, students gain not only a better understanding of English syntax, but also a feel for different rhetorical styles.

The second Bright Idea in this issue is "Blackjack" by David O'Reilly and Steve Mierzejewki. In this lesson, the card game of Blackjack is used to help students practice using modals to express probability and to request and give advice. Two similar, but different books, are also reviewed in this issue: *Techniques and Principles in Language Teaching* by Diane Larsen-Freeman is reviewed by Paul Lehnert and *Approaches and Methods in Language Teach-*

ing by Jack Richards and Theodore Rogers is reviewed by Steve Mierzejewski.

We would like to close by thanking all of the contributing authors, especially those who submitted sketches of their experiences in a developing country. These authors had to do some very quick work in order to reply to our editorial queries in time; we could not have put the series together without the prompt and efficient help that they gave us. A special thanks is also due to Carol Rinnert, who volunteered her time as General Editor for these sketches.

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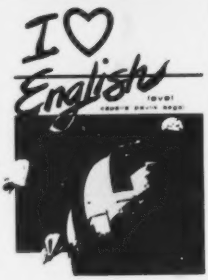

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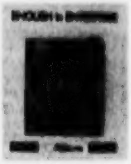

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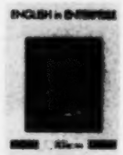

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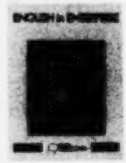

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Using Humanistic Techniques in Writing Class

George Jacobs
Wongpet Chaiariyakul

In teaching spoken language, it is now widely accepted that students should be using the language to communicate ideas, not talking only to practice language structures. Unfortunately, this emphasis on communication, instead of drill, has been slow to gain acceptance in the teaching of writing. For many teachers the emphasis in second language composition is on practicing form (such as grammar, spelling, and punctuation), and ideas are seen as secondary. Raimes (1983) says that in ESL composition there has been too much focus on the ESL part and too little on the composition area. Communication is neglected as correctness gets all the attention.

But communication is what gives life to writing. Without an audience to write for, without a meaningful topic to write about, composition class is dull. The finished products reflect this in their dullness and also in their lack of correctness. These disappointing papers are produced because students are only asked to get a passing grade; they are robbed of a purpose for writing clearly, convincingly, and correctly.

This article considers one way of putting more communication into writing class. This way is through the use of a humanistic approach to language teaching. Such an approach is described by

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Gertrude Moskowitz in *Caring and Sharing in the Foreign Language Class* (1978). Although writing activities are included as an integral part of the language activities in *Caring and Sharing*, the purpose of this article is to accentuate that aspect of language class.

First, three important benefits of a humanistic approach and their specific application to the teaching of writing will be explained. These three benefits are increased student self-confidence, improved classroom environment, and more communicative writing. Following the explanation of the advantages of a humanistic approach to writing, the article will discuss how to conduct humanistic activities in writing class.

A humanistic approach emphasizes that education is more than just learning facts. The view that facts are all that matters in education is forcefully expressed by Gradgrind, the school owner in Dickens' *Hard Times*, who says, "Teach these boys and girls nothing but Facts. Facts alone are wanted in life. Plant nothing else, and root out everything else. You can only form the minds of reasoning animals upon Facts: nothing else will ever be of any service to them."

In contrast, humanistic education also involves the affective side of people. It helps us look inside ourselves. This means exploring our "memories, experiences, feelings, wishes, values and fantasies" (Moskowitz 1982:20). By stressing the affective element, humanistic instruction seeks to teach the main content of a course in such a way that as students learn the course material they grow both in their understanding of themselves and others and in their confidence in their ability to succeed in the world.

Unfortunately, too many classroom activities do not do this because the activities start with the view that students are like empty glasses which must be filled; everything in the classroom goes into the learners, who passively receive knowledge. However, students do already know a lot when they come to the classroom, and using this knowledge enhances learning. This is important to writing because personal experiences are much easier to express than impersonal knowledge or experiences. This is supported from research by Winfield and Barnes-Felfeli:

> Only with extreme difficulty can most students write about unfamiliar concepts, situations, and environments. Therefore, in choosing topics for writing exercises attention should be placed upon selecting themes drawn from *known contexts* or themes that can be directly related to *personal experience*. (1982)

Furthermore, using impersonal topics "... can inhibit learning because it isolates what is to be learned from the vital learning process–that of making links between what is already known and the new information" (Martin 1979). In humanistic writing activities, the view is that students have something valuable to give also, and that when students bring what they already know about themselves and the world to help themselves understand new information and tasks, they have more confidence and learn quickly (Moskowitz 1978:10–14).

This increase in self-confidence is one of the most important advantages of using humanistic methods. Many authors have talked about the key role self-confidence and self-image play in learning (Curran 1972; Stevick 1973:262-3; and Krashen and Terrell 1983: 38). Brown (1980:104) cites studies by Heyde (1979), Brodkey and Shore (1976), and Gardner and Lambert (1972) to support his belief in the crucial importance of self-esteem in language learning. Chastain (1976:247–8) believes that self-concept is the most crucial elements in academic success. He goes on to say that "the development of a positive self-image is important in the school setting and for a productive adult life .... The question for the classroom is whether or not teachers can develop attitudes and behaviors that improve student self-concepts." Citing research by Brown and MacDougal (1973), Chastain asserts that teachers can help develop positive self-image among their students.

Humanistic language-teaching techniques have been shown to increase self-confidence. Experiments by Galyean (1977), reported in Moskowitz (1981), found that students in second-language classes using humanistic activities achieved scores on oral and written tests and on a self-esteem measure significantly above those of students in classes where humanistic techniques were not used. One humanistic technique is emphasizing the positive. This means that the class discuss their happy memories, not their sad ones; people's strengths, not their weaknesses, are what class activities are about. Negative experiences, feelings, and comments are avoided as much as possible. Using topics (such as those suggested in Moskowitz) that focus on affirmative, upbeat aspects of their lives and then sharing their compositions with their classmates and teachers can lead to greater student self-confidence.

Concentrating on the positive can also help lower inhibitions. In their native language, students are capable of easily and effectively expressing themselves, but when using a second language, they make many mistakes and feel frustrated; even little children can speak better than they.

This fear of making mistakes or looking foolish can make students inhibited, and this inhibition retards the process of language acquisition because it stops people from experimenting, from taking chances (Guiora et al. 1972). By using activities that improve self-image, inhibition will be lowered (Brown 1980: 105–7).

In addition to building self-esteem by valuing what students already know and by stressing the positive, humanistic language teaching also promotes self-esteem by having students share their experiences, feelings, and ideas with each other and the teacher. When students share experiences and feelings with each other, they gain acceptance from their peers, an important factor in self-image. Also, teachers can bolster student self-confidence because teachers now have more to praise students about. Moskowitz (1978:26) explains that the teacher's usual role is that of giving negative feedback, correcting punctuation, organization, grammar, and so on. Humanistic topics provide a lot of opportunity for positive feedback. For example, if students have written about how they have improved over the least five years, the teachers can praise the changes that students have made.

The sharing of experiences, feelings, and beliefs which takes place among students and between students and teachers leads to the second benefit of humanistic language teaching: better personal relations in the classroom. This positive effect on classroom atmosphere of a humanistic approach to language teaching was shown in research by Moskowitz (1981). The investigation showed statistically greater acceptance of fellow students, among learners of six different second languages, after the use of humanistic activities.

Two ways to achieve this environment are by having the teacher write on the topic and by having students read each other's compositions. The result is the creation of a more cohesive classroom environment because, after reading about each other's lives, emotions, and ideas, individuals, thrust together in a classroom, feel less separate, closer to one another. The barriers between students get lowered, and even the Great Wall separating teachers and students becomes easier to climb.

Related to the improved learning environment created by the group activities is the fact that the activities provide students with an additional audience, besides the teacher, for their compositions. Learners will be genuinely interested in reading each other's writing on humanistic topics, because, as Holt (1964) noted, the most interesting thing for students is their classmates. Also, when their peers are going to be reading their papers, it will matter more to students that their compositions are understood. Raimes (1983: 261) points out that students "with no sense of purpose or audience try to guess what the teacher wants, try to find the words and correct the grammar, but have no intellectual or emotional investment in what they are writing about. They are saying something that nobody cares about in order to practice something else." Peer reading focusing on ideas can be used, thus giving students roles as teacher and reader as well as learner.

The third benefit of humanistic language teaching is that it provides an opportunity for real communication in the classroom. Communication means that what is said and written tells listeners and readers something that they did not already know. However, this criterion of being new information is not enough to make a language activity the kind that really involves both the cognitive and affective sides of students. Too many activities, while communicative, deal with superficial matters and thus fail to produce wholehearted student involvement (Moskowitz 1982).

For example, if a teacher holds up a pen and says, "This is a pen," it is not communicative because students can see that the teacher is holding a pen. If the teacher were to say, "This pen has black ink," it would be communicative, in that new information is being given, but students would probably not find the news very interesting. However, if the teacher's or students' experiences or feelings were being discussed, the class would probably feel more involved. By aiming at this kind of emotional participation, humanistic activities bring the classroom closer to real life.

Topics which deal with students' lives or those which concern feelings are often suggested as being good for promoting communication in language class. Humanistic topics combine both these aspects by discussing feelings within a personal context. The importance of combining the two can be seen in the contrast between topics which deal with only one aspect and humanistic topics, which concern both. For example, having students write about what courses they are taking is personal but does not deal with their feelings. A better topic would be to have students describe their ideal school day (Moskowitz 1978:181). Also, having students imagine and write about the feelings of a character in a short story toward another character who influenced her or him would deal with feelings but not relate to students' lives. Instead, students could write about someone in their lives who had an important positive influence on them (Moskowitz 1978:134). Here feelings and personal content would be combined. Obviously, there are going to be times when students will not be able to write using personal topics or topics that deal with feelings. However, the practice and confidence students gain in initially writing about themselves can easily be applied to any later writing topic or task.

An extra plus for the teacher of humanistic writing subjects is that when students write about themselves, every paper is different. Instead of reading twenty-five papers telling about the same three ways that Chiang Mai is different from Bangkok, teachers can enjoy reading about twenty-five unique individuals' encounters with life.

Now that three important advantages of humanistic language teaching–increasing self-confidence, improving classroom relations, and providing material for communication–have been discussed, ways these advantages can be applied specifically to the teaching of writing will be described. Humanistic activities are best used in a writing class which emphasizes a process approach to writing. As described by Cowan (1982), there are three steps in the writing process. The first is creating the ideas that will go into the composition. The next step is shaping the ideas into a piece of writing and tailoring the writing to the needs of the intended audience. The final stage is completing. At this point, and not before, consideration of form, such as grammar, spelling, and punctuation, is taken up.[1]

Dividing writing into stages is key to the sharing element of a humanistic approach because it separates consideration of ideas and how to express those ideas (stages one and two) from concern with form in stage three. A process approach moves the emphasis of writing away from form, which unfortunately is all that many students think about, and puts it on content, where it belongs. Once students see writing in this perspective, they respond to each other's writing as interested readers instead of as form-obsessed substitute grammar teachers. This is not to deny the importance of from—great ideas lose their luster in shoddy packaging—but to put it in its proper, back-seat place.

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[1] "Steps and stages" should not be considered absolute; during the writing process a student may (and should) go back to a previous step or stage as many times as necessary.

In the first stage of the writing process, students generate ideas about the topic. Attention is only on ideas, not on putting ideas into sentences or using correct grammar. There are a number of techniques that teachers can use to facilitate this creation of ideas. An important one is for the teacher to also become a sharer in the exchange that goes on in humanistic writing activities by telling the class about their own ideas on and experiences with the topic. We cannot ask students to write on a subject if we are not willing to do so ourselves. Additionally, it is more fun for teachers and helps make them more human, less intimidating, in students' eyes when they are part of the sharing that is going on. Teachers can do this in two ways. One is by orally describing their experiences, feelings, and ideas. The other, better way is to write on the subject. This composition can be handed out to students as a model, or teachers can go through the three writing stages along with the students. When teachers compose along with students, it gives students a chance to watch the teacher's writing develop through the stages and grow as a result of feedback from students.

Shaughnessy (1977) suggests using student compositions as models. This can be done by saving the best student compositions and then possibly polishing them a bit. Using student writing as a model gives students an example from someone similar to them in ability, background, and interests. This helps overcome the "yawning chasm" (Freedman 1983:181) that too often exists between the model students are to learn from and their own compositions. If teachers use their own or students' compositions as models for students, it should be done in such a way that students learn from the models but do not copy the ideas in them.

Depending on the topic, various group activities may be appropriate to the invention stage of writing. These include group discussions to share experiences and ideas, interviews, and role plays.[2] For example, interviews can be used with the topic "Someone I Just Met" (Moskowitz 1978:76), in which students talk with someone in the class who they do not know or know only slightly.

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[2] Davies and Omberg (1986:8) reported that 83% of the students they surveyed felt that group brainstorming sessions led to increased ability to find ideas for writing topics.

After finding out about the person, students then write a composition, sharing with the rest of the class what they have learned. Many techniques in which students work alone are also well-suited to creating ideas. Among these are quickwriting, cubing, and drawing. (See Hartfiel et al. 1985 for more information about invention techniques.)

An important group rule in using humanistic techniques is the right to pass. Although teachers will try to avoid sensitive areas, a particular topic might make one or two students uncomfortable. If this is the case, and not just that they do not want to do anything, then these students should be allowed to write on another subject. Also, when students read and then write questions and comments on each other's papers, if there is a question or comment that a student does not want to respond to, they can pass.

In step two, students use the ideas generated in step one to write their first drafts. At this point, teachers might want to have students write outlines. This would also be a good place for exercises in the structures, connectors, and vocabulary which are often used with a given topic or type of writing. (See Lawrence 1972 and Makay and Rosenthal 1980.)

Then, after the first draft has been written, peer feedback can be done. This feedback should, at least with the first reading, focus on the content, not the form, of the writing. Here, Moskowitz's (1978:24–35) advice on conducting discussions can be applied to writing. The importance of concentration on the positive has already been explained. Part of this is that there should be not 'put downs.' When students read each other's writing, they should write comments and questions about the content in the margins (see Jacobs 1986), but should avoid negative remarks about the draft's ideas. For example, if someone wrote on the topic of "How I've Grown" and said that they stopped reading comic books, it would be fine for another student to ask why, but it would not be good to say it is stupid not to read comics.

Changing the membership of the pairs or small groups that students form is another suggestion Moskowitz makes. This allows everyone in the class to get to know everyone else, thus enabling the cohesion created by the sharing of experiences, feelings, and ideas to spread throughout the class. Some students may object to this, preferring to always be in a group with the classmates whom they know best. Hopefully, over the course of the term, this objection will disappear as these students get to know other classmates better.[3]

In addition to giving each other feedback on their drafts, another group activity would be for students to write together. One way to do this would be after reading each other's papers, students could write a joint composition using the ideas from their initial compositions. An example would be to use the topic "Birth Order" (Moskowitz 1978:129), in which students describe how their position among the children in their family, for example, eldest daughter, affected them as they were growing up. Then, the class could be grouped so that people with different birth orders were together. After reading and discussing each other's compositions, students could jointly write one utilizing the functions of comparison and contrast to describe the experiences and feelings produced by their different birth orders.

When students are writing their own compositions, they will probably want to make some changes after receiving feedback from their classmates and the teacher. These changes could involve going back to step one to add a new idea or to rewrite a section that was not clear. For example, in a composition describing an experience, the first draft might not have enough details for readers to understand what happened. Thus, the writer needs to add more information. This process of writing, feedback, rewriting can be repeated. Finally, when the content of the composition has been settled on, attention can be focussed on the form. This is step three. Here, peer feedback can also be helpful in eliminating errors such as misspellings and incorrect punctuation.

Doing a summary when the students have finished the third stage of the writing process (correction of errors in form) is also a good idea. For example, if students have written on the topic "How I've Grown," telling about improvements they have made, teachers can summarize what kinds of changes have occurred. This emphasizes again that the teacher is interested in ideas, not only form. Additionally, teachers should try to find out student reaction to the topics by asking them how they felt while writing and sharing what they were writing. One way to do this is by using Spack and Sadow's (1983) idea of having students write a journal, which teachers respond to, concerning class activities.

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[3] However, other authors have disagreed with Moskowitz. They believe that if students stay in the same groups, the groups can improve their functioning over time.

Some teachers, discouraged by lack of success, come to feel that writing is unnatural and perhaps even too difficult to teach. This may be because we often view writing as solely a creative art. Many people think that in order to write, you must immediately write seriously and in a unique style. Perhaps then, we should remind ourselves to look at writing as it has been described here, as an enjoyable and ongoing process of exploration.

A key part of returning to this idea of writing is, of course, choosing good topics. Raimes (1983:266) points out that the "assignments chosen can make or mar a composition class. They can turn it solely into a grammar class, or an imitation class, or a 'following directions' class. Or they can write form and content, ideas and organization, syntax and meaning, writing and revising, and, above all, writing and thinking." Humanistic methods, by encouraging students to explore the positive side of themselves and to share their discoveries with others, and by giving them the opportunity for real communication, provide one source of activities that writing teachers can draw on.

APPENDIX

Following is a list of topics from *Sharing and Caring in the Foreign Language Class* (Moskowitz 1978) which are suitable for writing:

Interview With You p.54
The Association Game p.71
Someone I Just Met p.76
Timid? Not I! p.83
Success Story p.90
Names People Play p.109
From Me To Me p.215
People I Like p.219
Funniest Thing p.123
Fun Is . . . p.123
Surprise! p.125
Birth Order p.129
Highlights Of My Life p.133
Someone Special p.134
Mysterious Me p.140
Fireman, Save My . . . p.145

What Makes You Angry? p.146
Glorious Garment p.147
What I Want From Life p.151
Once Upon A Time, Five Years From Now p.154
Songs That Say A Lot p.172
My Ideal School Day p.181
Favorite Times p.209

Other topics that we or colleagues have used are:

Happiness Is . . .
When I Was Ten Years Old, Happiness Was . . .
Why I Am A Good Friend
My Wonderful Dream

In addition to the list above, teachers can develop good topics from their students' lives. For example, we hoped that it would make students feel good to remember passing the university entrance examination. So, we asked them to write about how they had prepared for the examination and how they felt when they found out that they had passed it.

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A Comparison Between Chinese and American Cultures in Forms of Address, Greetings and Farewells, and Compliments

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As an English teacher at the university level for more than twenty years, as a cooperator with American teachers at the university, and as a Chinese visiting scholar in the United States on two trips for more than two years, I have experienced problems when interacting with Americans. Misunderstanding has often arisen. A compliment might be taken as an insult. A friendly expression might upset the interlocutor. From the complaints of my students, my colleagues in China, Chinese students studying in the United States, and my American friends, I found it is also the case with their experience. Sometimes it was due to linguistic deficiency. But what else caused the problem?

Researchers in the United States and elsewhere have carried out many studies on the above problem. Hymes brought up in the sixties and the early seventies the "question of what a foreigner must learn about a group of verbal behaviour in order to participate appropriately and effectively in its activities" (Hymes 1962). Wolfson stated further, "Languages differ from one another not only in such areas as phonology, syntax and lexicon, but in the very use to which these linguistic resources are put" (Wolfson 1983). If one wants to take part in "speech events" properly in the target language with native speakers, one has to acquire "rules of speaking" of that language (Hymes 1972). In other words, the communicative competence of a language consists of not only linguistic aspects but also sociolinguistic ones.

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In China, enough emphasis has been placed on teaching of English phonological, morphological, syntactical, and lexical rules, but "rules of speaking" have been quite neglected. Students may know how to put a sentence in English order or conjugate English verbs, but they do not know how to use an English sentence appropriately in certain situations. Owing to their ignorance of rules for appropriate speech, the learners are likely to run into all kinds of troubles, as illustrated in the following two examples.

> A Chinese young woman named Li Mei-fang was reading a letter from an American friend, David, which began with "Dear Mei-fang." Her husband happened to see the salutation and became very upset, suspecting that the letter writer might have had an affair with his wife, as "Dear + first name" is never used by ordinary friends in Chinese letter writing.
>
> An American woman teacher suddenly cut a student short and went out of the classroom annoyed. The student, much puzzled, could never know that it was because he tried to give her a compliment by saying, "You have gained weight."

The Chinese people involved in the above two incidents all knew English. But the husband in the first story was not aware that "Dear + first name" is the most popular form of salutation in English letters to almost all friends. The student in the second one had no idea that the compliment in Chinese "You have gained weight" would be a great offense to American ladies. The same kinds of problems face the learners of Chinese language in the United States.

The above examples point out that rules of speaking are an indispensable part in developing students' communicative competence. However, since sociolinguistics as a branch of science was not popular until the past two decades, most language teachers still have little idea of the importance of rules of speaking. What is more, most of them, especially non-native teachers, have even less knowledge of the rules.

In view of the difficulties Chinese learners of English and English learners of Chinese often experience, it should be clear that teachers of English and Chinese need to become more aware of cross-cultural differences in language use. In order to contribute to a general awareness of the importance of rules of speaking and language teachers' knowledge of these rules, the following paper will explore differences between Chinese and English (especially American English) in forms of address, greetings and farewells, and giving and responding to compliments. The data used are based on the researcher's experiences in China and as a visiting scholar in the United States from 1980 to 1981 and since February 1985, collected through audio-taping and note-keeping.

Forms of Address

Addressing is involved in most interactions in the everyday life of people. In cross-cultural interactions, knowledge of rules in this area is extremely important, as the previous example showed. Eighty-seven examples of forms used to address the researcher by five of her American friends in China and 23 in the United States (seven males and 16 females, including professors, graduate students, housewives, and secretaries, and their children) were studied as well as the address forms among themselves. The researcher also answered phone calls for the office secretary for one and a half days and analyzed the address forms used in 21 calls. An investigation was also made in an elementary school on forms of address between 50 teachers and their students.

Study of the data shows that in the United States, the use of first names is a popular form for address. Out of the 28 American friends, 17 called the researcher by her first name and nine used "Mrs. + last name," but they all changed to using her first name after two months of acquaintance or a little longer, except one secretary in the office, whom she did not meet very often. The other two called her by her first name and last name together at her request. The study also shows that the first name is used between friends, between colleagues, between teachers and students, and between parents and their grown-up children, especially in in-law relationships. Sometimes, people use "title + last name" for reference to someone who is high in position but switch to first name in direct address. Of the 12 calls to the director of the office, nine initiated by using "Is Dr. + last name there?" but seven switched to the first name when the expected addressee came to the phone. A stranger may be introduced by his (her) first name, and it often happens that people pursue an acquaintance for quite some time before they begin to know each other's last name. The last name is never used alone as a direct address.

In contrast, it would startle and greatly embarrass Chinese people (especially Chinese women) to hear themselves addressed by their first name by colleagues or friends. It would be especially shocking if the addressor is the opposite sex. In China, the first name is only used as a form of address by spouses, lovers, parents, or relatives of one's senior generation, such as uncles, aunts, or grandparents. Among colleagues or friends, the most commonly used address form is one's full name, that is, last name and first name together. Another popular form is "Old + last name," if the addressee is not very young, such as, "Old Li" or "Old Wang," and "Little + last name" if the addressee is under about 35, thus, "Little Yang" or "Little Lin."

Children in China are never allowed to call their parents, grandparents, uncles, or aunts by their first names as this would be considered extremely bad manners. Once an American movie playing in Shanghai involved a man calling his mother-in-law by her first name. It took the audience a long while to figure out the relation between them, and then accusation came from the audience of his bad manners. While it is considered polite for American children to call their parents' friends by "Mr. + last name" or "Mrs. + last name," and even the first name is often an acceptable address form, neither of them can apply to Chinese children. "Uncle + last name" and "Aunt + last name" are the most appropriate address forms for parents' friends. When she first came to the United States, the researcher experienced both surprise and annoyance when she was addressed by her first name by the five year old daughter of one of her friends. Since to respect the elderly is a Chinese virtue, "uncle" or "aunt" can be used even to address strangers. If one wants to ask elderly people for information or directions, it is important to call them "uncle" or "aunt" first.

As an outcome of the socialist system of the People's Republic of China, relationships among people have changed. Thus, they rarely use such titles as "Mr." or "Mrs." or "Miss" as they are used in the United States or in many other countries. Instead, they address each other by "Comrade + last name," thus "Comrade Wang" or "Comrade Li," particularly in formal address among new acquaintances.

At American elementary and high schools, "Mr. (Mrs. or Miss) + last name" is the usual term to address teachers, but some teachers prefer to be addressed by their first names. Out of 50 teachers at the elementary school investigated, five teachers were called by their first names by students. At universities, professors and students often address each other on a first name basis. As all professors there have the doctoral degree, "Dr. + last name" is used very often as a third person reference, and sometimes is also used as a direct form to address professors with whom students are not familiar. From one semester's observation in a course, only seven students addressed the professor by "Dr. + last name" and three of them were foreigners. On the other hand, in China, "Laoshi" (teacher) is the most popular form to address teachers at elementary and middle schools and all faculty members at universities, including teaching assistants who are also on the faculty at Chinese universities. The title "professor" is used only on very formal occasions or as a title for introduction or reference.

Another potentially confusing difference in terms of address concerns name order. In Chinese, the family name comes before the given name, while in English, the family name is at the end of the name order, thus, the term "last name" and "first name." Even more confusing is that in the United States most women take their husband's last names after marriage. A married woman named "Mary Davis" can be addressed as "Mary" or "Mrs. Davis." However, this is not the case with a Chinese woman. As women claim to be totally equal to men in China, their maiden names remain with them all their lives. If a married woman named "Wang Mei-fang" is addressed as "Mrs. Wang," she is bound to be puzzled and will wonder if it is she who is addressed because Wang is her maiden name. For example, when an American couple visited their Chinese friend Li Qian-ying in Shanghai, besides addressing her as "Mrs. Li," they kept calling her husband "Mr. Li." This surprised and embarrassed the Chinese couple very much, as neither form of address was accurate. He was Mr. Ding and she, Mrs. Ding or Miss Li.

Several additional address terms in English also have different rules of use in Chinese. For instance, "sweetheart" or "honey" is heard sometimes from sales personnel to address female customers in the United States. "It is quite common for the same speaker to address a series of male and female customers regularly using 'sir' to the males and 'dear' or 'hon' to the females" (Wolfson 1983). That would astound the Chinese as these terms are strictly confined to the relationship of lovers. "Girls" is another term used once in a while to address a group of women, old or young. But it can never apply to older Chinese women since "girls" in Chinese refers only to female children or very young women. "Lover" in English refers to someone one loves or one has sex with outside marriage. However, misunderstanding often arises when a Chinese person from the People's Republic of China uses "my lover" to refer to a spouse.

In English writing, "Dear" is always a necessary part of the salutation, even when writing to a stranger. In Chinese letter writing, "Dear" is never used except if the addressee is really dear to the writer. Instead, "Respectable" often procedes a title and last name of someone who is one's senior. Among friends, the salutation is just "Old Wang," "Little Li," or "Comrade + last name." The husband's suspicion about the relationship between his wife and the letter writer in the story at the beginning of the paper was an unfortunate result of the ignorance of rules of speaking of English in this respect.

Greetings and Farewells

Greetings can be given in the forms of linguistic messages and expressive messages (Goffman 1963). In this paper, only the former ones are discussed and the term "greeting" used here refers only to linguistic greetings.

Three hundred and thirty-two (332) greetings and farewells were collected in offices, on the school bus, at restaurants, and at dinner parties in the United States. Fifty-six (56) examples were collected in China. Of those, 49 were from a university campus in Shanghai. In addition, forty-seven (47) greetings and farewells in making phonecalls were taken from the calls by the landlady the researcher lived with and by the researcher's roommates in the United States.

The analysis shows that in the United States there are many forms of greetings used when people encounter each other, such as, "Hi," "Good morning," "How are you doing?" and so on. Out of 127 examples of greetings in the morning, 79 were "Good morning." Forth-three (43) of them were used to the Vice Chancellor, Dean, Department Chairman, and professors. Eight (8) were between the assistant manager of a bank and the customers. Five (5) were between the cleaning woman and graduate students. The rest were between graduate students. The examples of "Hi" were used between graduate students, between salesmen and customers, and between the landlady and the tenants. It can be seen that "Hi" is more often used between people who are close in status, while "Good morning" is more formal and used more often with people of higher rank. In Chinese, the difference of rank between people is not distinguished by the form of the greeting itself, but rather the manner. People of lower rank often address a senior interlocutor before he gives the greeting "Good morning" or "How are you," while people of the same rank only exchange greetings without addressing each other. Following are two contrastive interactions, one between two teachers and the other between a teacher and a student passing her on a bicycle:

Between two teachers
A: Morning.
B: Morning. Where is your classroom?
A: No. 303 in Lecture Hall One.
(They parted quickly.)

Between a teacher and a student
A: Lin Laoshi (Teacher Lin), good morning.
B: Good morning.
(They passed each other. The respondent, the teacher, did not have to address the initiator, the student, in response.)

When and how long greetings can be used also differ between the two cultures. "Good morning" can be used throughout the morning till noon in English. But in Chinese it can only be used in the early morning, because the Chinese expression "Zao (morning)," besides being a greeting, also implies the meaning of "You are early." So if one says "morning" to others after nine in the morning, it sometimes might be taken as a sarcastic remark. The following interaction might sound strange to English speakers.

A: Morning (Zao)! Where are you going?
B: Oh, it's already ten o'clock. I'm not early at all. I'm late today.

Theoretically, there is a term of greeting "Wan an" for both "Good evening" and "Good night" in Chinese. But in actual practice, this term is seldom used even when people meet at eight in the evening. "Ni hao (Hi)" isused instead at all times of day except in the early morning.

At a dinner party in a banquet hall, a Chinese lady, an important figure on that occasion, tried to practise English after she was introduced by the interpreter to an American guest. The following interaction took place:

A: Good night, Mr. X.
B: Good night, Mrs. Y. (Very much puzzled, as the dinner had not started yet. Was she going to leave?)
A: (In Chinese and through the interpreter) Shall we go over there and have a cup of tea first?
B: Yes, thank you. (More puzzled. Was she going to stay? Why did she say "good night" then?)

Chinese English learners have to guard against the mistake of confusing "good night" with "good evening" in English, because they are both translated as "wan an" in Chinese and can be taken as the same meaning. "Night" is later than "evening" to Chinese English learners. So they often wonder what to say when they meet an English speaker at ten o'clock in the evening, and they would never say "good night" when they part with an English speaker at five in the afternoon. On the other hand, for English speakers, "good evening" is used when people meet in the late afternoon, in the evening, or at night no matter how late it is, while "good night" is an expression to bid farewell to people at those times.

Another area of confusion involves the American expression "How are you doing?" which can be used as a greeting between familiar friends, acquaintances, and even nodding acquaintances. There does not seem to be too much difference between "How are you doing? " and "Hi" in American use. In Chinese, "Ni hao (Hi)" is used with all people while "Ni hao ma? (How are you doing?)" is only used between familiar friends. Very often it is used as an opening remark to begin a short chat when two Chinese come across each other. The following is how two teachers interacted when they ran into each other at the school gate, both riding bicycles:

A: Ni hao. (Hi.)
B: Ni hao. Ni hao ma? (How are you doing?)
A: Hen hao, ni ne? (Very well, and you?)
B: Oh, mang de bu de liao. (Oh, I'm swamped.)

A last area of confusion regarding greetings is examplified by the reaction of an American teacher working at a university in Shanghai who complained that she was often asked where she was going by many people she met in passing. She was very upset about this kind of interference with her personal activities. In fact, "Where are you going?" in Chinese is also a kind of greeting at any time of day. In addition, "Have you eaten?" or "Have you had lunch (supper)?" are also mere greetings during meal hours instead of real questions. The questioner is not interested in any answer at all. The following interaction is one of the most common ones heard on the campus of a Chinese university:

A: Where are you going?
B: To the library.
A: All right. See you.
B: See you.

But for people of different cultures, these kinds of greetings may very likely be taken as an invasion of privacy.

Farewells also constitute a kind of "ritual display" as greetings do (Goffman 1971). Data show that there are certain patterns of wishes used at the time of parting in American English. Out of 107 farewells collected, 34 were "Have a nice day," 28 were "Have a nice weekend," and four were "Have a nice meeting." The usual response to the wishes is "Thank you. You, too." Similarly "Nice meeting you" and "Nice to have talked to you" is a form commonly used when one leaves a newly introduced acquaintance. The response is "Me, too." But none of these expressions are used by Chinese speakers. They simply say "Good-bye" or "See you (later)" when leaving each other. If they were given such wishes or treated with this kind of politeness, they would not know how to respond. For example, for a long time after he came to the United States, a Chinese visiting scholar was embarrassed and did not know what to say except "Thank you" each time when the bank teller said "Have a nice day" to him as he was leaving the bank.

As another example of a confusing pattern, in the United States, a guest might say, "I enjoyed the dinner," "I really enjoyed the evening," or "I enjoyed the talk very much" besides expressing thanks at the end of a party or a dinner, and the host (hostess) responds with, "Thank you for coming" or "We are glad to have had you." This kind of interaction sounds funny to Chinese speakers. From an American's perspective, the guest has given the host pleasure by coming and being with him. So the pleasure is on both sides. But a Chinese host would only think that he has entertained the guest and given the guest pleasure. That is why "Thank you for coming" would sound very strange to both Chinese hosts and guests. The following is a typical example of parting between Chinese hosts and guests:

A: Thank you very much. We are sorry to have bothered you for so long.
B: You are welcome. We are sorry that nothing special has been served. (Actually a big dinner has been served.)
A: How could you say nothing special! The food was wonderful.
B: Watch your step, please. Drop in again when you have time.
A: You stop by our home when you are free.
B: I will, thank you. Watch your step, please.
A: Don't bother to see me out any further. Please go back into the house.

It is a usual practice for a Chinese host to see the guest out of the house and walk him for some distance. At least, the host would stand by the door until the guest is out of sight. In contrast, American hosts, after exchanging remarks and wishes for parting, close the door behind the guest.

From the following research data, it can be seen that there are even bigger differences between Chinese and American speech behaviour in making a telephone call. As American speech behaviour on phone calls might irritate, insult, or amuse French speakers (Godard 1977), it has shocked many Chinese speakers in the United States. In Chinese, the opening remark on a phone call is "Ni nar?" (Where is your place?" or "Ni shi X ma? (Is your place X?)." Only when the caller gets a positive reply, will he ask for the expected addressee. But this is not the case with American phone callers. Twenty-one (21) calls from the data made by Americans all began with "Is X there?" or "May I speak to X?" So in the United States, wrong number phone calls are often very striking (Godard 1977), as the callers do not check the place on the other end, or the number, but just say, "Is X there?" The names they refer to are often total strangers to the answerers. It might be because in the United States there is a telephone in almost every house, apartment, and office, and it is taken for granted that the person you want to reach is right round the phone, and there is no need to check the place at all. After hearing "May I speak to X?" an English speaking answerer would say, "This is X," "This is she (he)," "This is X speaking," or just "speaking." To Chinese native speakers, the first two responding remarks sound as if the answerer were introducing someone else instead of identifying himself. In response to the caller's request "I want to speak to X," a Chinese answerer would identify himself directly by saying, "I am X. Who are you?" instead of "This is X. Who is calling?" in English. The latter two response patterns are even more confusing to Chinese. One example from the data is as follows: A Chinese speaker began a telephone call to her friend, a Chinese American, by asking in Chinese, "X zai ma?" (Is X around?)." The answer was also in Chinese, "Zai shuo hua (Speaking)." Instead of going on talking, the caller asked, "Ta shenme shihou keyi shuo wan? (When can he finish speaking?)." As incredible as the story sounds, it is, nevertheless, a true one. Six of the phone calls in the data to the researcher from her Chinese friend proceeded in exactly the same way. The phone call began in English:

A: May I speak to X?
B: Speaking.
A: (A short silence, then switched to speaking Chinese) X zai ma? (Is X there?)
B: (In Chinese) Wo shi X. (I am X.) (Then the phone talk went to smoothly.)

Before ending a call, there usually are some pre-closing hints in English as exit cues in leave-taking (Goffman 1963), such as, "Nice to have talked to you" or "Thank you for calling." But Chinese callers do not interpret these expressions as closing hints and might try to continue the conversation. They need to hear a more explicit message, such as, "Let's leave it at that" or "Shall we stop here?" as a directive for ending the phone call. The following is the closing part of a phone talk between an American and a Chinese native speaker:

A: When are you leaving?
B: Tomorrow.
A: Wish you a good journey.
B: Thank you. I'll call you when I'm back. Thank you for calling.
A: You are welcome. Do you need any help? I think that . . .
B: No, thank you. I'm sorry I have to run. Talk to you in two weeks. Bye-bye.

Obviously the hint "Thank you for calling" did not work. A did not take it. As B was in a big hurry, he had no choice but to use a more explicit expression "I have to run" to end the conversation.

Compliments and Response to Compliments

As was shown by Wolfson (1983) and Manes (1983), the idea of compliments is closely connected with values. The study of 39 examples collected among Chinese students, teachers, and American teachers working at a university in Shanghai, and 28 examples gathered in the United States at dinner parties, on the campus, and at conferences has led to very interesting findings. "If there are important differences in the way compliments work within and between ethnic groups who speak different varieties of the same language, we must expect to find much [greater] difference across speech communities where totally different languages are spoken" (Wolfson 1983). This can also be verified when comparing the use of compliments in the United States and China.

For example, in China, being plump connotes happiness, fortune, and no worry. Based on this value, it is taken as a compliment to remark that someone has gained weight. Nineteen (19) examples of the data show how Chinese students and teachers offended American teachers while complimenting them on their gaining weight. The second story at the beginning of the paper is one of them. On the other hand, when Chinese remarked that an American had lost weight just to show their concern, the listener turned out to be extremely delighted. The following is one typical example:

Chinese teacher: Hello, Ms. Jefferson. How have you been? (Concerned) You seem to have lost weight. Are you fine?
American teacher: Really? Are you trying to make me happy? I hope I have lost some weight. But I'm not sure.
Chinese teacher: (Puzzled and did not know what to say.)

For Americans, especially for American women, being thin has great value. They often spend considerable money on diet and exercise to keep themselves at a certain weight. Therefore, the remark that an American has gained weight is perceived as an insult instead of a compliment. Even the word "plump," which implies a good sense of "nicely rounded" or "pleasantly fat," is not favoured by Americans while the word "skinny," which, in fact, has a negative meaning among Chinese of "too thin, underweight" is often well-received by Americans. In one of the examples in the data, an American saw a picture of the daughter of a Chinese scholar and remarked, "She is skinny." The scholar was a little unhappy, for her daughter was very pretty. Why did the American friend make such a remark? But then she was surprised to hear the American's reference to her daughter as "your beautiful daughter" in the following conversation. The same word "skinny," if used to describe a Chinese person, would imply the sense of sympathy with someone who might have had some misfortune or who might not have enough food to eat. It would never be taken as a positive word.

Because more emphasis is placed on the virtues of people and qualities of individuals in China, the Chinese people do not consider good-looks as a great value. Too much attention to one's appearance would mean less attention to his work or study. With this kind of public concept of values, people seldom give compliments on each other's appearance. However, remarks, such as "You look pretty in this sweater," "You look very nice today," and "What a beautiful coat," which were common in Wolfson's research on compliments, are heard very often in the United States. Eleven (11) examples of this kind of compliment were collected in two weeks between friends, between colleagues, and between parents and children on the campus of an American school and in the American family the researcher lived with. As this kind of compliment is considered embarrassing to Chinese, they are seldom heard in China. However, similar compliments on performance are heard in both cultures since both the United States and China value good performance. As Manes put it, "Outside of compliments on personal appearance, by far the most frequent type of compliments are those on the quality of something produced through the addressee's skill or effort" (Manes 1983). Such compliments as "You did a good job," "You speak good English," and "Your talk was very impressive" are popular in China as well as in the United States. Nevertheless, Wolfson's discovery, "Speech acts differ cross-culturally not only in the way they are realized but also in their distribution, their frequency of occurrence and in the functions they serve" also conforms to the data found in this research. Twenty-one (21) examples were gathered in one month in America, but only four were observed in the same length of time in China. So one of the differences between Chinese and American speech acts in terms of giving compliments on performance could be that the Chinese, who are characterized as reserved people, give fewer compliments than Americans do. Only when one has done an extremely good job will he or she win a compliment. Similarly, an American guest often pays compliments again and again to the hostess on the food at dinner, even if the food is not to his liking. Chinese guests seldom do so, even if they, in fact, are very fond of the food and appreciate the host's and hostess's hospitality greatly.

As Chinese people are known for their modesty, their way of responding to compliments seems unusual to Americans and often puzzles people of other cultures. All of the 17 data collected had the same response "No, no, no" to compliments "You did a good job," "You speak good English," and "How could you speak English so well?" Does it mean they did not accept the compliments or they thought they were not good in that respect? No. It is just a form to show one's modesty. To say "Thank you" to respond to a compliment as Americans do would be considered arrogant. No matter how pleased Chinese people may feel upon hearing a compliment, they must withhold any expression of gratitude or delight.

Another manifestation of this is shown by nine examples of Americans who felt upset with their Chinese friends or interpreters because when they expressed their gratitude to their Chinese friends for their help, the response was all the same "No, it's my duty." This kind of reaction made the Chinese seem unappreciative to Americans. The response is interpreted to mean that they help only because it is their duty. In other words, they have to do so even though they might not like it. This is also a misunderstanding arising from different societal values. When Americans respond to being thanked, they seem to place great value on "pleasing" the person who thanked them. This is shown by their response "You are welcome" or "It's my pleasure," meaning "I am pleased to do that, so you don't need to thank me." From a Chinese perspective, however, "duty" and "responsibility" are even higher values. Thus, the response "It's my duty" means "I'm happy that I can do my duty" and "I have not done anything special or extra for you, so you don't have to thank me."

Implications for Teachers

The above examination of Chinese and American forms of address, greetings, farewells, and compliments provides insight into the differences between Chinese and American cultures from a sociolinguistic perspective. Considering the differences between these cultures in terms of rules of speaking, it should be clear that non-native speakers of English and Chinese need specific instruction in the appropriate ways to use many of these linguistic forms. For example, when an English as a second or foreign language teacher is introducing greetings or compliments, it is not enough to teach the correct forms. Students need information and practice on greetings and compliments that are appropriate (and inappropriate) in various situations. Native Chinese speakers (and by extension speakers of other Asian languages) need to be taught to say "How are you?" not "Where are you going?" as a usual greeting and have to be informed that "You've gained weight" is an insult to most Americans. They need instruction in proper salutation in letters (Dear ____________) and use of first names in addressing peers, even with members of the opposite sex. In addition, students should be informed about the high frequency of compliments, acceptable (and unacceptable) responses to compliments, and appropriate subjects for compliments in English. For instance, American English speakers frequently give compliments on attractive clothing or jewelry and admirable performance, but not on weight gain. Incorporating practice with this kind of information, beginning in elementary level classes, should help students overcome some of the confusion and inadvertent miscommunication resulting from differences in rules of speaking.

This paper is only a beginning. As there are, no doubt, many additional aspects of communication in which these two cultures have different rules for social interaction, further research is needed in order to promote mutual understanding and appreciation of Chinese and American cultures as well as facilitate and make more meaningful the experience of learning and using the two languages.

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Taking Second Language Learners Beyond the Classroom: Gathering Natural Speech Samples

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It is common knowledge that many people who have studied a language for several years in the classroom are uncomfortable in situations where they must interact with native speakers. They are often at a distinct disadvantage when it comes to using this language assertively, which involves a mastery of the rules of speaking, not just the rules of grammar. For instance, they might not know exactly how to introduce themselves under different circumstances, how to get the floor, how to interrupt, or how to establish intimacy or maintain social distance. They are usually limited to only one conversational style. In order to learn these and other rules of speaking, language learners must be provided with opportunities to interact in an authentic and unpredictable manner with a wide range of native speakers.

This article presents a pedagogical adaptation of sociolinguistic field-work techniques as an activity that does this and unites the world outside the classroom with the more structured environment of the school.

Sociolinguistic Fieldwork Techniques

Before assessing the educational value of sociolinguistic fieldwork techniques, it would be helpful to consider the methodological approaches of linguists studying speech in a social context.

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The first step for all such research is the identification of the language community to be surveyed. This is followed by a preliminary observation of the places of local interaction in the neighborhood: the schools, stores, bars, playgrounds, and so on.

Prior to making any direct contacts with local residents, sociolinguists must establish a reason for their presence in the area. In many developed countries, people are naturally suspicious of strangers who try to start a conversation with them, more so if they carry a visible tape recorder. It is therefore imperative that fieldworkers prepare a careful explanation for their investigative effort, including reasons for their interest in the locality. But the stated topic of interest must never be language itself. The surest way to obtain unnatural, formal, corrected speech is to say that language is the subject under study. Thus, some genuine–while perhaps general–purpose for the researchers' endeavors must be adduced. This enables fieldworkers to interact with community members as participants and observers, conversing with them on topics of authentic interest, while directly observing (and tape-recording) their speech.

In addition to pinpointing a specific geographical area and preparing an explanation for the work being carried out, investigators must devise interview forms to guide them as they engage their subjects in conversation. Because standard survey questionnaires often call for only the most formal language registers, sociolinguists have developed "interview schedules," which consist of a series of modules that are based on topics related to the expressed subject of their research. These modules incorporate a range of questions purposely designed to elicit both general information, which tends to be more formal in style, and personal experiences, which are ordinarily conveyed in a more casual and spontaneous fashion. Such modules produce a continuum of conversation styles from the most careful to the most colloquial.

Among the topical features included in all interview schedules are some questions that have been shown to elicit spontaneous, uncorrected, natural speech. When properly introduced in the course of a conversational exchange, these questions create a context that encourages the retelling of personal stories and the reliving of past experiences. They direct the speaker's attention away from the interviewer and away from language and involve them in the communication of their own feelings, which inevitably generate spontaneous utterances. Topics that invite such speech are childhood games and rhymes, fight stories, premonitions, luck, and situations of danger (Labov 1966). The corresponding queries are inconspicuously integrated into the total interview sequence with the knowledge that most people will eagerly relate an incident in which they believe they almost died in a style that bears little resemblance to the polite ways in which they reply to direct inquiries.

In actual sociolinguistic fieldwork, it takes the investigator several visits and a comparatively long period of time to get to know the informants, their families, and friends. Toward the end of these many sessions, the most formal elicitation techniques are introduced: minimal-pair word lists, specially written passages, and subjective reaction tests. The linguist then has a whole array of contextual styles at his or her disposal for future analysis.

For the purpose of second language teaching, the question becomes how to help students gain the fine-tuned competencies that are automatic and can only be described in abstract terms among native speakers. There is reason to believe that the methodological procedures utilized for gathering sociolinguistic data may be an end in themselves in helping students achieve these goals. For the second language learner, the entire fieldwork experience is valuable, beginning with the determination of how to get in touch with representatives of the speech community, as the actual involvement with native speakers will develop the abilities needed to analyze tape-recorded material under the instructor's guidance in the classroom.

Applications to Second Language Teaching

The following adaptation of sociolinguistic fieldwork techniques is intended for intermediate and advanced learners who need motivation and encouragement to interact with representatives of a particular language community. It is designed to give them a measure of confidence as they become aware that they can overcome their inhibitions toward talking to native speakers other than their friends and teachers.

In this procedure, the methods previously described are suited to the needs of the school. Students, acting as fieldworkers, are sent out of the classroom to collect material, i.e., natural speech, that later serves as a basis for both linguistic and cultural analysis. It is a two-step process: the actual data collection from native informants constitutes the first step, and the second one is the analysis of tape-recorded speech for comparison and contrast of various patterns and styles of speaking. As a result, a learning situation is created that employs real conversation to help students gain communicative abilities. It brings the classroom and the outside world into a meaningful educational unity. Through a systematic progression of activities, students are motivated to communicate with native speakers in contexts where both grammatical correctness and pragmatic relevance may be called for. Practice of this type helps increase the learners' fluency as well as their understanding of the varieties, uses, and cultural aspects of the language.

Data Collection

Before beginning fieldwork with native informants, learners should be prepared to conduct interviews by means of exercises designed to build up their confidence. Depending on their ability levels, the teacher should plan lessons that impel them to seek information from other students in class, for instance, through role-playing situations. These may be followed by questions on personal values and attitudes. Obviously, exercises of this kind are an integral part of many second language courses. Yet, the fact that they are an indispensable prelude to face-to-face interviews with representatives of the speech community must be stressed. Later on, students should be given short assignments that compel them to get small bits of information from native speakers. For example, they could be required to select a place they wish to visit and find out from a foreigner the approximate cost of the trip and details about the place itself, or they may have to poll their foreign friends whose views on an issue of current interest are to be summarized. The information obtained can then be brought back to class for discussion, but first, students should be trained to ask questions, understand responses, and impart the knowledge they have gained to others.

Once the learners have participated in a sufficient number of prefieldwork activities, preparation for the full-scale project may begin. The first step is to discuss the entire procedure with the class. This involves a description of interview situations with examples of the range of speech styles that emerges from each (e.g., medical histories can be contrasted with TV talk show interviews). It will illustrate the variety of samples that may be gathered and give the learners an idea of what they will be looking and listening for.

After this structured introduction, an appropriate topic must be selected. It should be of plausible interest (anything that relates to people and their lives would probably meet this requirement) and compatible with the sociolinguistic research methodology described above. Possible topics might include life in big cities and small towns, environmental concerns, foreign travel, living and working in Japan, contrasts between lifestyles, and so forth.

Once a topic has been agreed upon, the teacher and class together prepare the interview schedule. As in actual sociolinguistic fieldwork, the schedule should consist of a module or modules with a series of questions to serve as guidelines for the interview. It should be constructed along a continuum, weaving the questions known to produce casual narratives in between formal inquiries.

After the activity has been fully explained, examples given, and a framework designed, the language of the questionnaire is reviewed. Pronunciation, intonation, new structures, and vocabulary should be practiced. Particular attention should be given to the students' introductory remarks, and since some of their requests for interviews may be denied, they should be alerted to that possibility as well.

When the participants are fully prepared, they are given a battery-powered cassette tape recorder and blank tapes. Each person should conduct a trial interview, first in class and then with an outside friend. It is important to be able to operate the tape recorder with ease—blank or distorted tapes could be a great disappointment. Learners are instructed to approach native speakers in pairs, introduce themselves, and ask if the informant has a few minutes to discuss a particular subject. Using their interview framework as a guide, they are expected to carry on two to four conversations, preferably with people of various ages, sexes, and socioeconomic standings. They might need several days to complete this part of the project.

Presented below is a sample module that the author's graduate students utilized in November 1985. These students were Canadian anglophones and prospective French immersion teachers who had been admitted into a special training program at the University of Victoria (UVic) in British Columbia.[1] They were given a list of the members of the Victoria-based "French-speaking Society"[2] who lived nearby and would probably be available for interviews. The students used this list to make appointments with their informants by telephone. Most of the subsequent meetings took place in the French speakers' homes.

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[1] The UVic Teacher Retraining Program (TRP), which was financed jointly by the University, the Federal Government, and the Provincial Government through a program arranged by the Provincial Ministry of Education and British Columbia's three public universities.

Life on Vancouver Island

Self-Introduction

Je m'appelle........et je suis des cours de français à un niveau avancé à
/My name is........I am a graduate student of French at the University of

l'université de Victoria. Je vous téléphone parce que vous faites partie de la
Victoria. I am calling you because you are a member of the French-speaking

Société Francophone et que vous pourrez peut-être m'aider à faire une enquête
Society. In fact, the President of the French-speaking Society herself gave

sur le mode de vie des personnes d'expression française dans l'Ile de Vancouver.
your name and telephone number to one of my instructors, as you might be

Cette enquête est un travail pratique qui se rapporte à mes études. C'est
able to give me some information I could use for a class project. The aim of

d'ailleurs la Présidente de la Société Francophone qui a donné votre nom et
this project is to find out what life is like for French-speaking people on

votre numéro de téléphone à un de mes professeurs. Est-ce que je pourrais
Vancouver Island. Do you think we could meet somewhere and have a twenty-

parler en français avec vous pendant une vingtaine de minutes à un endroit et
minute conversation in French at your convenience? Could you possibly see

à une heure qui vous conviennent? Est-ce qu'il vous serait possible de me
me this week or next week? Where do you think you would feel most com-

rencontrer cette semaine ou la semaine prochaine? Où est-ce que vous vous
fortable for the purpose of answering my questions? What day and what time

sentiriez le plus à l'aise pour répondre à mes questions? Quel jour et quelle
would be most convenient for you?/

heure vous conviendraient le mieux?

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[2] La Société Francophone de Victoria.

Questions to be aked

1. Depuis combien de temps êtes-vous à..........?
/How long have you been living in..........?/

2. Est-ce que vous êtes d'origine canadienne? (Si oui:) De quelle province
/Are you a native-born Canadian?(If so:) Which province did you come

êtes-vous originaire? (Si non:) Quelle est votre nationalité d'origine?
from? (If not:) Where are you from originally?/

3. Quel a été votre premier contact avec un milieu anglophone?
/What was your first experience in a community of English speakers?/

4. Est-ce que certains membres de votre famille vous manquent?
/Do you miss any of your relatives?/

*5. Qu'est-ce qui vous manque le plus ici?
/What do you miss the most here?/

6. Est-ce que vous avez des enfants dans la région? (Ou:) Si j'ai bien compris
/Do you have any children living in this area? (Or:) If I understand what

ce que vous m'avez did tout à l'heure, vous n'avez pas d'enfants dans la
you told me a little while ago, you don't have any children living in this

région?
area?/

*7. Quel est le souvenir le plus vif de votre enfance?
/What is your most vivid childhood memory?/

8. Est-ce que vous participez à des activités organisées pour des francophones
/Do you take part in activities planned for French-speaking people or by

ou par des francophones?
French-speaking people?/

9. Dans quelle mesure est-ce que vous pouvez utiliser votre français dans
/To what extent is your ability to speak French useful in your work?/

votre travail?

*10. Est-ce que vous vous êtes jamais trouvé(e) dans une situation de discrimi-
/Have you ever felt discriminated against as a speaker of French?/

nation en tant que francophone?

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*Crucial question; must be asked verbatim.

11. Quelles sont les émissions de télévision françaises que vous préférez?
/What are your favorite French television programs?/

12. Est-ce que vous croyez qu'il y a plus de scènes de violence dans les émis-
/Do you think there are more violent scenes in the English programs?/

sions anglaises?

*13. Est-ce que vous avez jamais assisté à une vraie scène de violence au cours
/Have you ever witnessed a violent incident in real life?/

de votre existence?

14. Est-ce que vous êtes bien ici? Autrement dit, est-ce que vous êtes
/Do you feel comfortable here? In other words, are you satisfied with

satisfaite(e) de votre sort?
your present situation?/

*15. Qu'est-ce qui vous déplait le plus ici?
/What do you most dislike in this area?/

Closing Statement

Je vous remercie infiniment de votre aide. Les renseignements que vous venez
/Thank you very much for your cooperation. The information you have

de me donner vont être très utiles.
just given me will be most helpful./

In the above example, the first few queries are more structured than those toward the middle and the end. This initial probing was intended to establish contact and produce somewhat abbreviated and formal responses. The latter inquiries were quite naturally integrated into the module with the knowledge that most people will eagerly talk about a childhood memory or an incident where they feel someone did not treat them fairly (Labov 1966, 1972). It was hoped that these questions (particularly the "crucial" ones: Nos. 5, 7, 10, 13 and 15) would, with some luck, elicit more spontaneous speech.

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*Crucial question; must be asked verbatim.

Overall, the results which were obtained met the interviewers' expectations. Question No. 7 ("What is your most vivid childhood memory?") functioned as had been anticipated 85% of the time. Question No. 5 ("What do you miss the most here?") worked out well 43% of the time. Questions No. 10 ("Have you ever felt discriminated against as a speaker of French?") and 15 ("What do you most dislike here?") were only 14% successful, and question No. 13 ("Did you ever witness a violent incident in real life?") was ineffectual. But then, all that was actually needed from each informant was one fairly long sample of casual discourse. Moreover, questions No. 4 ("Do you miss any of your relatives?") and No. 8 ("Do you take part in activities planned for French-speaking people or by French-speaking people?"), which were not supposed to be crucial ones, proved very effective 30% of the time.

The interviews encompassed a wealth of interesting, varying, and natural utterances. They reflected different dialect pronunciations (both social and regional), basic everyday expressions, and cultural references that are commonly made, though often taken for granted by native speakers. In addition, students benefited from the fieldwork experience and contact with their informants. Their active involvement in producing the tape recordings built up their interest and motivation for all the exercises that followed. Self-made tapes of this kind appear to provide a stimulus for classroom work which goes far beyond that of packaged materials or simulated role-plays.

Data analysis

The material collected from the fieldwork lends itself to a wide variety of classroom activities. These range from basic comprehension of language in context to analyses of subtle linguistic variations. The following are suggestions for such activities. Depending on their ability level as a group, the learners might be asked to do some or all of them.

a. Basic comprehension and study of the cultural content of the taped conversations.
b. Vocabulary development exercises.
c. Examination of particular grammatical structures.
d. Analysis of discourse features such as topic nomination, topic shift, interrupting, and turn-taking.
e. Review of the functions of certain structural units, e.g., questions which stand for indirect speech acts.

f. Study of stylistic variation, e.g., instances of code-switching or phonological reductions brought about by shifts from formal to casual style.

g. Identification and correction of the learners' own errors from any of the above areas.

h. Final written exercises.

Whichever type of scrutiny is deemed appropriate, the activities should progress in the order outlined below.

1. A general class discussion is held on the total fieldword experiment. Students are given the opportunity to express their reactions and attitudes toward the project and to recount their experiences.
2. The participants might be asked first to provide a summary of information from their recorded conversations—comparing their linguistic features and noting any phrases or words they do not understand.
3. Then, the instructor predetermines the kinds of analyses to be conducted and listens to the students' tapes to find specimens of the items to be studied. Segments that are especially interesting because of their cultural value and the language they contain are also selected.
4. The instructor introduces each assignment to the class by explaining what is to be investigated, offering examples in isolation (either orally or orally and in writing), and going over parts of the recordings to further illustrate the point being made. One such assignment might be to have the project participants study the differing functions of a given set of structural units—for instance, questions. The instructor would explain that questioning may serve several purposes within context and would show how a question can be employed to establish a topic, keep a conversation going, request information, or even provide action directives. Then, she or he would play portions of the learners' tapes to give them concrete examples of inquiries used in such ways.
5. The learners take their cassettes home or to the language laboratory and complete the work on their own or in small groups.
6. Individual students or groups of students present their findings to the whole class. They are expected to play portions of their tapes to demonstrate the points they are making and to illus-

trate the differences between the speakers they have interviewed.

7. The instructor prepares structured exercises to give the learners a chance to improve their skills in language areas where they appear to be weak both from the interview situation and from the classroom presentations. These may be on strictly grammatical points or on more general rules of speaking.
8. Where appropriate, written assignments are given to individual students. They might be asked to compare their own recordings to those they have heard in class, to explain how their speakers resemble or differ from others in attitudes or speech styles, to criticize their own interview performance–and to make suggestions for improvement.
9. The final stage of the follow-up procedure is the evaluation of the entire process with the class and possibly the joint preparation of a new module for the next fieldwork assignment.

Conclusion

The experience provided by the preceding adaptation of sociolinguistic fieldwork techniques has been found to have many advantages. Perhaps of greatest significance are the sustained interest, motivation, and enthusiasm that are generated even among the shyer students. While commercially prepared audio and video material can be captivating for some time, tapes produced by the students themselves are likely to have more staying power. This approach is useful for the following reasons as well:

In the field, project participants are forced to talk with native speakers; they are not able to avoid such confrontations. They will have to make themselves understood by utilizing whatever communicative devices they can muster to ask the required questions and to react to the responses. In some cases, their prepared interviews may lead to prolonged conversations and further contacts with a particular language community.

In the classroom, students will have an opportunity to examine their own speech, to identify their own problem areas, and to see what changes the careful forms they use in formal learning situations undergo when they are engaged in spontaneous discussions. Thus the tapes they bring back give the teacher a chance to attend to the students' individual problems in natural discourse. Moreover, cultural values and attitudes will become far more apparent because they are received directly rather than through the intermediary of a text, videotape, or instructor. Both in the field and in the classroom, learners are exposed to a variety of well-formed but casual utterances. They can listen to and analyze a broad spectrum of regional and social dialects as a result of dealing with a cross-section of informants of different ages, sexes, races, and socio-economic classes. By being introduced to the heterogeneity of a natural speech community, they are able to avoid the frequent limitations of being exposed only to the idiolects of their teachers and a few foreign friends. Finally, advanced learners might be able to develop the ability to consider stylistic variation on the part of any one speaker, and not just differences between several performers.

Those of use who would like to prepare our students to communicate in a second language have to recognize that there is no way we can duplicate the L2 community in our classrooms. In the "street" the opportunity for language experience is infinite, unlimited by the textbook, the knowledge of the teacher, or the time of day. We have to face this fact in reaching a decision on how best to spend the time and expertise we have available to us. Perhaps more importantly, we need to view the L2 acquisition process as one that takes learners from classroom to street and back again to classroom (Savignon 1983). Levels of competence wax and wane with changes in exposure and emphasis. We should perceive the occasions for L2 use in the learners' environment, and we should help them to successfully integrate those occasions into their language program.

APPENDIX

The methods described in this paper are applicable to a wide variety of settings around the world. This is true even in countries which do not have large L2 communities. For example, in countries like Japan, it might be necessary to seek L2 speakers around tourist spots during the summer months. Approaching these L2 speakers can in fact the easy. For instance, an enterprising English-speaking society in Kamakura offered free guide service for a walking tour of their city. They set up a large sign at the railroad and bus stations to attract the visitors who were not on a guided tour. This meant that usually one student ended up accompanying two foreigners (Via, 1976). Fieldworkers might simply follow this example or think of other ways to help prospective informants in exchange for taped interviews. L2 speakers can also be found around large hotels and convention centers, on the campuses of large universities, in the foreign language publications sections of large bookstores, and at L2 language films and plays. Following is a sample interview for Japan based on sociolinguistic fieldwork techniques. It is general enough to be adapted to many different situations.

A Suggested Fieldwork Module for Japanese Students: Life in Your Neighborhood

Self-introduction
Hi! Are you from a(n) /name of language/ -speaking country?. . . . .
I'm from /name of city, town, or village, /not too far from /name of a large city/. I'm a student, and I'm working on a project here in /name of the place/. I'm trying to find out how Western people feel about the area in which they live in their country. Would you have some time to talk with me?

Questions to be asked

1. When did you come to Japan?
2. What do you think of your trip (stay) so far?
3. What has been the best (most interesting) part?
4. Do Japanese people seem pretty friendly to you?
5. Does life in Japan seem very different from where you (used to) live?
6. Do (did) you know most of the people who (used to) live near you in your country?
7. Are (were) there people you (used to) know well enough to just walk into their house?
8. Do (did) some people from your neighborhood just drop in to visit?
9. Are (were) the streets safe around there during the day?
10. And at night? Are (were) you afraid to walk around by yourself? What makes (made) you afraid?

*11. Are (were) there places you would not go by yourself? Where?
12. Did you ever hear of anything really bad happening to anyone in your neighborhood?
*13. How about you? Have you ever been in a situation where you said to yourself: "This is it, I have had it"–at any time in your life?
*14. You never called the police?
15. What would you do if anything bad happened to you in Japan?

Closing statement
Thanks for taking the time to talk. The information you have just given me will be most helpful. Enjoy the rest of your trip (stay).

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Short-Term Study Trips for Young Beginners: Pitfalls and Remedies

Emiko Yukawa

Introduction

Today, English education in Japan differs greatly from what it was fifteen years ago. One factor which has contributed to this change is the fact that short-term study programs in English speaking countries for learners of different levels of ability are now available. Such programs have two major goals–English study and cultural learning. They offer learners opportunities to hear and speak English for communication in settings other than the classroom and also to experience the culture of the country where English is spoken. The short-term study trip provides learners with one of the best environments in which to learn a foreign language and experience another culture.

Oftentimes, however, such programs do not achieve as much as they should, especially in the case of young beginners. Many participants go, for example, to the United States but speak English only in the formal classrooms. They step into big cities and hurriedly leave them, coming back with no memories of culturally and linguistically awakening experiences but holding a huge Mickey Mouse doll from Disneyland.

While organizing and preparing a short-term study trip for a high school English Speaking Society Club (ESS) in 1984, many of the problems which weaken the educational experiences to be gained in such programs became evident. In this article, these

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problems and the solutions which I chose will be outlined and discussed.

The Situation

The twenty-seven ESS club members of Hikone Nishi High School, 1983-84, were not a group of exceptional teenagers as is sometimes characteristic of private high school ESS groups in big cities. Although their motivation was high, the English proficiency of the members varied greatly, ranging from the top five per cent to just the middle of the same age group. Anyone with an interest in English was welcome to join the club–not only high achievers.

The members met five days a week with me. In these meetings, club activities involved games, tapes and videos, and an occasional visit by guest English speakers. Besides this daily practice, the members made 8mm films and videos in English for school festivals and other events. In the year preceding the study trip, they had five intensive English camps, where they enjoyed making films and videos and practicing their English.

Going abroad as an official activity of a public high school ESS club was an unprecedented project in Shiga prefecture. The school authorities, concerned about liability in the event of an accident, did not approve of the trip as an extra-curricular activity or support it in any way. Through several discussions with the students and their parents, we decided to carry out the program as a private group trip.

Without any official support, I was not willing to take responsibility for members I did not know well. I encouraged twelve of the ESS club members to join the group trip. Nine of the twelve decided to join the twenty-one day study trip in the summer of 1984.

The site chosen was Lancaster, Pennsylvania, United States, where I had studied as a graduate student for a year and a half at the local state university. I was lucky to still have many contacts who were able to find homestay families and make arrangements for group activities, including short sightseeing tours and English lessons.

Organization–Avoiding the Pitfalls

Inherent problems in short-term study programs for young beginners are limitations of time, linguistic ability, and maturity.

Hence, the role of the organizer is very important in order to foresee these problems and to compensate for them. In only a few weeks, neither English improvement nor cultural learning can be easily attained unless the organizer exercises some means to accelerate the process and intensify the encounters between the students and native speakers. Regarding the linguistic aspect of such programs, whereas intermediate and advanced students are able to change their outside environment (for example, English on radio, television, and streetsigns) into learning materials, beginning students are not able to do this. Hence, the organizer must take care to sort these encounters and organize them into manageable learning situations for beginners. Concerning maturity, beginning students who are young (teens and early twenties) need more attention than older students. The older we become, the more life experience we usually have–including skills we use in meeting new people and experiencing and adapting to a new environment. Young people who lack these skills have to be provided with some arrangements to make up for them.

In designing our short-term study trip, these limitations of time, linguistic ability, and maturity were kept in mind. Four features of the program were designed to compensate for these limitations: the students participated in the planning; special care was taken in arranging the homestays; the students were given a task to be accomplished on the trip; and a counseling retreat was held during the trip.

Students' Participation in the Planning Process

Even if we exclude the fun-seeking participants who do not care to improve their linguistic skills, few students seem to know what elements of a study trip will enable them to improve their English. Many students seem to think that being on the soil of an English-speaking country is enough. The truth is, students must force themselves to use English if they want to improve, no matter where they may be. This simple principle is quickly forgotten when they find themselves in the foreign country. Once outside the formal classroom, they often lapse into speaking Japanese with their friends for shopping and sightseeing.

Hence, as advisor, I had the students participate in the planning process in order to heighten their awareness of program goals. They discussed the purpose of the trip and their goals. They agreed that they wanted to practice English and learn about American culture. They then discussed which activities would help them meet these goals.

In addition to the scheduled fifteen hours of formal English lessons, the students realized in planning their trip that another good opportunity to improve their English would be interaction with their homestay families. They realized that these families, who volunteered to host them, were the best Americans they could hope to interact with (the families were interested in them, otherwise they would not have volunteered). The students resolved to practice their English with the homestay families and to join the family activities as much as possible. Such contact would also help them meet their second goal: cultural learning.

As the students planned their trip to meet these goals, they realized that in order to meet their goals they would be unable to go on as many sightseeing trips as they would have liked. Of the choices I offered them, they chose a two-day trip to Washington D.C., thus giving up opportunities to see New York, San Francisco, and Disneyland, all of which they had wanted to visit prior to our planning discussions.

One activity which was initiated by the students in this planning stage was a picnic with a church youth group. The students requested an opportunity to interact with American youth of their age—to get to know how they differ from and are the same as Japanese youth. With the help of one of my contacts in Lancaster, we were able to arrange the picnic.

After the planning discussions, the itinerary was made final. The activities to be shared by the group during the twenty-one day stay were:

English lessons—five days, three hours per day
Opera—one evening
Amish Village Tour (Lancaster local attraction)—one day
Picnic with Youth Group—half day
Mountain Cabin Retreat—two days, two nights
Washington D.C.—two days, one night
Hershey Amusement Park—one day
Farewell Party—one evening

The planning discussions were necessary not so much for the making of plans as for heightening the students' awareness of the goals of the trip and how each activity would help them meet these goals. The students then had a better idea of how to prepare themselves for the trip. In addition, the value of each activity was better understood.

Arranging the Homestays

In a short-term study trip for young beginners, the homestay experience is significant because it offers the students the chance to interact with native speakers of English in ways which are rarely available to students of low proficiency. In organizing the homestays then, several measures were taken to ensure that each provided quality learning experiences.

The first measure taken was to assign only one student per family. In homestay programs where more than one student is assigned to a family, the student who speaks English best tends to monopolize all the talk. Hence, the goal of the homestay–interaction with a family–is attained by only a few and not all of the students. By assigning only one student per family, we hoped to avoid this kind of situation.

In addition, it was also important that the students stay with their homestay families throughout their entire stay in the country –not just for a few days or a weekend. In terms of linguistic and social interactions, being with a family for a few days is totally different from being with it for several weeks. A few days is just enough time for self-introductions and basic questions and answers, which even beginners have already practiced many times in class. A longer homestay, however, gives the students opportunities to interact much more and learn such culture-dependent aspects of communication as 'appropriateness,' for example, when and how to give and respond to compliments.

Another measure taken to ensure a successful homestay experience was a careful matching of students with families. Japanese youth rarely have an opportunity to mix with different age groups until after high school. Real socialization practice usually begins in the university or on the job. Therefore, we tried to make up for this lack of social experience by matching the students with families so that they would have something in common. The matching began when a photo and profile of each student was sent with information on their family, personality, hobbies, future goals, likes, dislikes, and what they expected to do and see during the twenty-one days in the United States. The American families then got together and examined the profiles to see which combinations would be the most enjoyable for everyone; for example, a student who was a pianist was matched with a very musical family. To ensure a smooth first encounter between the students and their families, they exchanged letters before they met. Each student received a letter from their homestay family after the matching was complete. The students then wrote back to their American families giving further infomation on themselves and inquiring about what the Americans expected to know about Japan. This letter exchange served to lessen the anxiety of the first meeting and to speed up the establishment of relationships.

A final aspect of the homestay experience was a farewell party and slide show given by the students for their families. The members had prepared slides on the theme "Introduction to Japan" before leaving for the United States. These slides, accompanied by music and explanations, were not only of the big cities and famous sites like Mt. Fuji, but also included scenes of their daily lives at school and in their neighborhoods. By showing these slides and explaining them to the families, the students were able to express with the help of pictures and music much of what they had tried to explain on their own. This experience eased their frustration and gave them a sense of achievement in English which could serve them in their future studies. In addition, the slides provided topics for discussions with their families, as the Americans inquired about things of interest in the pictures.

The Assigned Task

While the homestay experience increases the number and frequency of interactions between students and native speakers, the different kinds of interactions must be recognized as limited. Greetings at morning, night, when leaving and coming home, statements of preference to such questions as "would you like to go to the beach tomorrow?" and small talks on such topics as family and Japan represent the bulk of interactions available through the homestay experience.

In an effort to increase the kinds of communication acts the students might practice, I decided to assign a task which they would have to accomplish while in the United States. This task would involve Americans and would require that the students communicate in English in order to complete it. As the EES club was planning to make an 8mm film for the school festival in September, we decided to require a part of the production to be done on location in Lancaster.

The movie was a nonsense comedy about a miracle pill, which, when taken, would allow a person to speak fluent English. The pill is stolen, and the thief has fled to a small town in the United States. Nine detectives are sent to catch the thief. In the movie, each detective (played by ESS students) had to visit such places as the police station, neighborhoods, churches, and supermarkets in search of the thief.

Helpful in understanding the kinds of interactions in English which the film project required and how these differ from those required in the homestay is the following classification of communication acts:

Controlling: acts in which the speaker's dominant purpose is to control behavior.
Feeling: acts in which the speaker's dominant purpose is to express feelings and attachments as an affective response.
Informing: acts in which the speaker's purpose is to offer or seek information.
Ritualizing: acts that serve primarily to maintain social relationships and to facilitate interaction.
Imagining: acts which cast the speaker in imaginary situations.[1]

In studying these categories, it is obvious that whereas the homestay experience offers the students practice primarily in ritualizing and informing, the filmmaking task would require the students to practice in these categories as well as in the other three: controlling, feeling, and imagining.

Indeed, the filmmaking task required the students to take more active roles in communicating with native speakers. Although, as their advisor, I had sent a letter to the host families explaining the project and asking for their cooperation, the students were still responsible for specific communication acts to complete such tasks as: finding actors and actresses to play roles in the film, borrowing a tape recorder and microphone, arranging transportation to and from filming sites, setting schedules, explaining what each role required, arranging for second takes of scenes which were not satisfactory to them, and explaining why they were not satisfactory. Therefore, the filmmaking task forced the students to take active roles when communicating in English: to control others' behavior, to express their feelings, to inform and to explain, and to imagine.

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[1] National Project on Speech Communication Competence. Synthesis Conference.

The Retreat and Counseling Sessions

During any intensive language study program, participants will feel psychological tension and fatigue. In a program involving high school students who are beginners in a language, the frustration can be intense.

In programs where the students are not isolated from each other by the homestay experience, this frustration often causes them to run away from English interactions. They are able to release their tension by being with each other and speaking Japanese on sightseeing trips or while shopping. In this program, however, such opportunities were rare. So, in planning the trip, I thought it important to schedule a break from the interactions with Americans after the first week. I was able to arrange a two-night retreat at a mountain cabin for this purpose.

It was through a long discussion with them the first evening and through individual sessions the next day that I realized how important the retreat was for them, especially at that point in the trip. Each member talked about their first week–their daily life with their host family and their feelings about it. Half of them were dying to release their frustrations and fatigue. Some cried to express their disappointment in themselves. Others had adjusted quite well to the new environment but could easily recall difficult moments and could empathize with those less successful.

The students' experiences and feelings varied. One student blamed herself, to the point of denying her own validity as a person, for the fact that she was more introverted than the other students and thus not engaging in as many interactions with Americans as she had hoped. Another shy student, afraid of interacting with her American family but wishing to learn English, had been staying in her room and spending hours of her free time browsing an English-English dictionary. Other students had trouble refusing anything the host family offered them because nicely refusing something requires more communication skills than accepting.

The retreat allowed the students to release their frustrations and express their fears and disappointment in themselves. It was also helpful in another way. The students realized several important things about the process of language learning and about intercultural experiences. Each student learned that she was not the only one going through this frustrating stage and that these feelings are normal for any language learner. They also came to understand that it was not lack of English language ability alone that caused such frustration but also their lack of an understanding of certain culture-specific communication patterns. For example, they were not sure of how much initiative to take in a conversation or of how frank one could be without showing disrespect to the host family. A third important revelation was that language learning is different from learning sports and other skills because language is inseparable from thinking, and one's identity is intimately linked to one's culture. Hence, the inability to fully function in a foreign language and culture could influence their self-perception and shake their self-identities.

We discussed many issues and problems related to cross-cultural experiences and language learning during the retreat. In the weeks that followed, it seemed that the students were better at protecting their egos and were more energetic at seeking out more and more interactions with native speakers. Thus, such a retreat, offered after the students are on their own for a while, can be very beneficial to young beginners on a short-term study trip.

I have here discussed the three major limitations of time, linguistic ability, and maturity on short-term study trips for young beginners and have offered several remedies. The remedies offered to compensate for these limitations on the three-week study trip of the Hikone Nishi ESS Club in the summer of 1984 may not be applicable to other programs because the group size might be larger and the participants may not be as close to each other. However, since the problems of young beginners are generally similar, I hope what is described here can provide solutions to whatever problems organizers of future programs may encounter.

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Teaching in Developing Countries: a Series of Sketches

Living and Teaching in a Political Culture

Stephen Ziolkowski

Are all cultures equally political? This question and its ramifications took on new relevancy and meaning for me when I worked for a year in Taiwan, the Republic of China, in 1983. There, I had to come to terms with politics every day, inside the classroom and out, and I learned that in Taiwan, unlike my country, Canada, politics is not merely the fodder of dinner-time discussion or news commentary but a fundamental fact of life and culture. Moreover, my experiences in Taiwan led me to examine in depth the relationship between politics and culture for the first time, and, in doing so, I began to see my own and other cultures from a new perspective.

The communist revolution on the Chinese mainland in 1949 altered the political map of the world forever, but nowhere are the reverberations more poignant than in Taiwan, refuge of the defeated nationalists of Chiang Kai-shek. The echoes of the revolution reach deeply into the infrastructure of the culture. The racial and linguistic makeup has been radically changed, the internal political situation has undergone a massive transformation, and Taiwan's role in the international political arena has taken on an importance far beyond its size or economy as various countries line up along the 'Two Chinas' issue. Both Taiwanese and resident foreigner alike hear and feel those echoes, though perhaps to differing degrees, and to me they were shocking in their frequency and range.

My first encounter with the political came even before entering Taiwan. Before starting work as department head of a Taiwanese

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language school, I was required to obtain a visa. Since many countries had severed diplomatic relations with Taiwan in order to recognize post-Mao China, at that time Taiwan had diplomatic relations with only 24 countries. Due to a policy of reciprocity, only two-month visas were being issued to anyone not related to a large foreign business venture. These visas, which could be extended twice at central police stations, were a means of keeping close tabs on foreign visitors. After six months, it was necessary to leave the country to reapply. The reapplication was by no means a rubber stamp affair and offered the government a secondary screening process. Visa problems were a fact of life for foreign teachers, and visa status was a factor in hiring new teachers, particularly after a strict crackdown by immigration officials in the latter half of 1983. Although the reported purpose was to seek out Filipino entertainers taking jobs that could be filled by Taiwanese, many language schools were investigated and there was widespread nervousness, even among those with valid visas.

Visa problems existed for Taiwanese as well. One of my students, a wealthy businessman, was jailed in India for three days when trying to change planes. Since India did not recognize Taiwanese passports, he had been unable to obtain a transit visa and was thus breaking Indian law. Also, all Taiwanese citizens must attend a day of politically accented lectures before obtaining a first passport. Applicants are taught how to respond to questions of a political nature concerning Taiwan and communism, among others, and patriotism is stressed.

My teaching experience at several government-sponsored youth centers, at my language school, at Chung San National University, and at the Japanese School of Kaohsiung pointed out explicitly that a political element was omnipresent and impossible to ignore. The most visible manifestation was the number of soldiers present in class. Uniforms and military haircuts are not surprising in a country with conscription, I suppose, but it was a new classroom experience for me.

The soldiers' presence was not solely visual, however. For example, a colleague of mine began a new class by using a world map–until a certain corporal told him the map was unacceptable: certain boundaries on it differed from the official government view. The topic was changed and the teacher shaken. Politics, for almost all teachers, was not a subject for classroom discussion.

On a less obvious level, the presence of soldiers affected the dynamics of my classes in different ways, both positive and negative. Almost without exception, the young men in uniform were polite, hard-working, disciplined, and helpful. On the other hand, there were problems of rank-consciousness, the formation of cliques which other students did not want to–or could not–enter, and a strong sense of pride and face which required them to act in a consistently serious manner and precluded any kind of playful response.

Although most soldiers studied to help obtain promotion or re-postings, other students studied for different yet still politically-motivated reasons. Older men, women, and children who could afford the expense of private teachers or language schools were often studying with emmigration in mind. These students considered Taiwan too politically unstable for either investment or long term economic growth. The substantial Taiwanese populations in the United States and Canada, to name two popular destinations, provided models for the potential expatriate, and these students were generally highly motivated with specific and detailed needs.

Through my teaching at the Japanese School and the language school, where many of my students were Japanese, I was exposed to yet another side of the political coin, a side which showed how the political relationship between two countries affects their citizens. The principal of the Japanese School related to me in rather hushed tones the fire bombing of two classrooms after the much publicized 'textbook incident' in 1982. The incident revolved specifically around the Japanese Ministry of Education's decision to delete the word 'invade' from history books describing the Japanese military occupation of Manchuria during the Second World War but more generally reflected the antipathy of much of Asia toward the current trade imbalance, the legacy of the war, and Japanese colonialism. Many of my adult Japanese students mentioned unpleasant incidents directed not so much toward them as toward their nationality.

. After some reflection, I began to realize that these and other kinds of political exposure I faced in Taiwan contributed substantially to my initial and quite prolonged culture shock. This observation not only helped me to accept and adapt to my new situation, but also caused me to reflect: are culture and politics divisible and, deep down, is my own country any different?

Certainly, when I returned to Canada for a brief period after leaving Taiwan, I saw not only Canada but Taiwan in an entirely new light. I saw how the two countries were similar in that culture and politics are mutually interdependent but different in how the relationship is outwardly manifested in language and customs. And I saw how ignorance can be both blinding and enlightening, depending on whether the vacuum is filled with opinion or with experience and whether the differences or similarities are stressed.

Stepping into a new political domain helped me to reevaluate the old, what I had previously taken for granted. Politics, if viewed as how the individual interacts within society, are everywhere. The differences lie merely in the variations and degree.

Responsibilities of EFL Teachers Working in the Third World

Michael Lazarin

Every act of education is a communication of an enthusiasm—for a discipline, a word, or an idea. Enthusiasms are manifold. The original meaning of enthusiasm is to be possessed by a god (*entheos*). Later, this term provided a basis for the explanation of inspired utterances by a prophet or a poet (Plato, *Phaedrus* 244 b-c).[1] Both religion and literature rightfully claim the communication of enthusiasm as their own. Nevertheless, I would like to discuss enthusiasm as it was taken up by a third discipline, philosophy, for it is with the practice of this discipline that an important ideal of education was established. This ideal runs throughout western history, and though it suffers the danger of being forgotten, it yet remains important to every act of education.

In antiquity, religious practice induced enthusiasm by means of a material instrument (*pharmakon*), e.g., viewing holy inscriptions (Eleusis), following dietary regimes (Orphics), or burning sacred plants (Delphi). Poetry required bodily movement, e.g., the incantations of heroic names in epic (movement of the tongue), the processional dances of odes (movement of the foot), or the spectacle of tragedy (movement of the eye). For both these disciplines, proximity to the inspired one, the prophet or the poet, was essential for communication to occur. Properly speaking, Greek poetry cannot be read. It must be sung, danced, or played; heard, felt, and witnessed. At the same time, communication itself was not essential to the inspiration. It was merely one means, and not especially the best means, by which enthusiasm could be made known.[2] There was no necessity that the inspiration experienced by the prophet or the poet be imparted to the audience.[3]

This obligation that the communication of the enthusiasm be educational was first accepted by philosophy, and with this decision, the systematic dissemination of enthusiasm through educational institutions began. In the *Republic*, Socrates argues that the truth and reality of his vision of the best city depends on whether he can instruct Glaucon, one of the young men listening to his

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arguments. This instruction was unique to the extent that it (1) required an explanation which could be understood by anyone, (2) consisted of an exchange of questions and answers, and (3) was creative in that the very act of communication constituted the kernel of a society established on the principles which Socrates proposed. In other words, it was necessarily simultaneously educational, communicative, and enthusiastic.[4] An academic tradition, which can be traced down to the present day, begins with this decision. The extent to which we participate in this tradition is measured by the enthusiasm with which we teach and which our teaching communicates.

Greek philosophy conceived enthusiasm as *thauma*, wonder. For both Plato and Aristotle, wonder is the beginning of philosophical thinking (Plato, *Theatetus* 155d; Aristotle, *Metaphysics* 982 b12). They also use this word to describe the state of mind of the audience subsequent to the *katharsis*, purification, of emotions produced by a good tragedy (*Poetics* 1460 b25). However, philosophy differs from religion and literature in that its program for the dissemination of enthusiasm belongs to practical science: ethics and politics. A good life and a good society result from a good educational system, and language training is the core of this system.

The system consists of two stages: (1) a propaedeutic (pre-educational) stage, wherein students are instructed in literature, and (2) a properly educational stage, wherein students are instructed in dialectic, rational argument by means of asking questions and giving answers.[5,6] Under the guidance of a good teacher, this exchange of questions and answers produces a change of character in the student. Enthusiasm as potential (i.e., wonder) becomes actual enthusiasm (i.e., knowledge). In particular, this knowledge is knowledge of the good, where knowing the good means consistently doing good. To consistently do good produces happiness (*eudaimonia*, to be possessed by a good demon).

When Plato, Aristotle, and the subsequent Alexandrian school first isolated the parts of speech, described their relationships, and so initiated the tradition of grammatical analysis, they had a twofold purpose corresponding to the two stages of education. The first was etymological: to provide a means for the verification and elucidation of the received texts of Homer.[7] The second was to explain how names teach us about the nature (*ousia*) of a thing and enable us to distinguish it from other things (*Cratylus* 388b-c). Grammar, together with rhetoric, poetics, and logic, constituted a practical program for the generation of a good society.

In our time, education has become a rather theoretical business. When language is conceived as an instrument of information processing and ESL theoreticians speak of language acquisition in terms which seem more appropriate to a discussion of electronic apparatus, it is easy to see how the language teaching classroom has been stripped of enthusiasm for learning.[8] An alternative approach talks about communicative competence, but little is said about what should be communicated. As teachers, we still parade in the costume of a great intellectual tradition, but our real task has become a kind of obedience training. Today, students are better versed in the ability to sit at a desk for long hours–the essential skill of corporate life–than the texts which they are required to read. Given this state of affairs, it is not so strange that many Americans and Europeans have to travel to undeveloped countries, scarcely touched by our cultural institutions, to rediscover that fundamental enthusiasm which lies at the basis of our own culture.

From 1982 to 1984, I taught at a foreign language institute in the People's Republic of China. In many cases, American teachers arrived with a great deal of confidence in their own educational methods. In most cases, we enjoyed more respect than we had ever received at our home institutions. The traditional language teaching methods used by the Chinese were easy targets for the sophisticated techniques developed in American research laboratories. As in all aspects of Chinese society, there were so many problems that rather simple solutions could effect sweeping reforms. For example, my school did not even have filing cabinets. Great leaps forward were envisioned. However, the situation proved rather more intractable to our designs than had been anticipated. At the time, many of us blamed the Chinese. Now, I hope we have learned that our own failure to appreciate the material problems which everywhere undermine progress in the third world was itself an important problem.

At the same time, some of the problems we faced in the United States were absent there. The logic of American education–study the text to get a good grade to get a good job to be able to buy prestige items–had not yet occurred to most Chinese students. Rather, they came to class well-prepared in order to learn. Not all of the Chinese students were so idealistic, but the consensus among foreign teachers, American, French, German, and Japanese, was that a much higher percentage of Chinese students were genuinely interested in learning than their counterparts in industrialized countries. Thus, despite the frustrations that were experienced in arguing the merits of recent ESL/EFL methodologies with the Chinese administration and coping with difficult physical conditions, most teachers responded to the idealism and enthusiasm of their students by spending many extra hours working with them. The students were eager to listen to anything we had to say about our own cultures, and we were just as eager to provide as much information as possible. The students were very grateful for our efforts.

In any society, student life is somewhat substandard in comparison to the general population. Money is scarce, living conditions are cramped, and the constant pressure of being judged by one's teachers gnaws the heart of leisure hours. In undeveloped countries, daily existence is hard, and student existence can be brutally hard. At my school, eight to ten students were packed into a dormitory room just large enough to contain a sufficient number of bunks and a shared desk. The food served at the student cafeteria was so foul and void of nutritional value, even by the poorest Chinese standards, that influenzas ripped through the student population with regularity. The radiators leaked tepid water for fifteen minutes in the morning and the evening. In order to conserve electricity, the students were not permitted to use electric light bulbs after nine o'clock in the evening. Yet, despite these material hardships, most of the students studied long hours, often by the light of street lamps, retained a rather joyful optimism, and made good progress. In short, they had enthusiasm for learning and communicated it to those around them.

As time passed, we began to learn as much, if not more, from our students. What I learned was a rediscovery of the process of learning. More than an accumulation of information about Chinese culture, I regained an enthusiasm for words, ideas, and discipline which had been suffocated by American academic life. I think this was true for many of the teachers in China. We became better teachers and in many ways were happier.

In time, this revitalization of the spirit, initiated by the Chinese students, became a mutual, self-generating exchange. A bad mood caused by a two-day shortage of some cherished commodity could be erased by a student's urgent desire to understand a passage from Eliot's *The Waste Land*. At the same time, I know we also had the same therapeutic value for them. However, there is a danger in all of this. The danger is that we might default on our moral obligation to the students. Such exchanges require a great commitment to and continuing responsibility for their educational welfare after one has left the host country. This danger is especially pernicious for ESL/EFL teachers, since so many of our human relationships are defined as brief encounters. After several short-term posts, perhaps on different continents, one becomes rather skilled at initiating, developing, and abandoning relationships.

One day, a Chinese student told me that he was afraid to form friendships with Americans. This had nothing to do with political pressures. Rather, it had to do with sincerity. He feared that we would soon forget our Chinese friendships after returning to the United States. We had introduced him to literature, linguistics, and life in the western world. After graduation, he would be assigned to teach at a school where it would be unlikely for him ever again to become friends with a foreigner, though it might be possible to meet one on occasion. How was he to sustain the interests which he had cultivated under our guidence? Perhaps, it would have been better never to have become interested in these things in the first place.

The kind of follow-up commitment that I have in mind cannot be satisfied by a regular program of chatty correspondence. Rather, I want to encourage teachers to engage in real material and spiritual support. Though our incomes are usually somewhat less than other academics, the occasional gift of a book or payment of the TOEFL fee is no hardship for us and can be a great benefit for our third world students. It is also important to support one's third world host institution to whatever extent possible, for example, by organizing book donation drives. Finally, it is most important to continue to read former students' compositions, recommend texts, discuss ideas, and in general, continue the communication which has been begun. We have no greater responsibility than to nurture and sustain that which we have set in motion. This is especially true given the small services which we can provide in return for the gift of knowing ourselves, our culture, and our world better.

NOTES

[1] Note that "inspiration" is the Latinized form of the Greek-based word "enthusiasm."

[2] For religious practice, a less idiosyncratic method was the "reading" of various natural phenomena such as the habits of birds (augury) or the entrails of various sacrificial animals (haruspicy).

[3] The pronouncements of the Delphic oracle are a good example of a case in which an enthusiasm is shaped in the form of a communication, but the intent of the communication seems more to baffle and perplex than to genuinely convey the enthusiam. In terms of literature, though one purpose of the tragedies was to influence the political opinions of the Athenian population, there was never a requirement that they successfully communicate a specific idea in order to exist. Rather, their existence as tragedies consisted more in the fact that they were performed in the competition at the Athenian spring festival. Only philosophy disclaimed its existence as philosophy if it failed to be a didactic communication of an enthusiasm.

[4] Certainly, instructional training programs ranging from agronomy to geometry existed prior to this event, but the essence of education had not yet been thought. As late as Aeschylus, the Greek word for education, *paideia*, still meant simply the rearing of children. Plato and Aristotle used this word to mean both the act of teaching and its results: culture, learning, and accomplishments. The academic tradition, which receives its name from Plato's school, the Academy, begins in clear opposition to the then prevailing network of peripatetic teachers, i.e., the Sophists. This tradition henceforth describes a clear boundary between teachers who genuinely communicate an enthusiasm for knowledge and teachers who disseminate information, usually for a fee.

[5] The literature itself consisted of two types: (1) kathartic literature, which would purify the soul of particular emotions (e.g., pity and fear), and (2) harmonic literature, which would bring the various parts of the soul (i.e., reason, spiritedness, and the appetites) into a harmonic tension.

[6] These stages were supplemented by instruction in gymnastics and natural sciences, but the core of the program consisted of language education.

[7] The Alexandrian grammarians borrowed the word *etymos*, an adjective meaning "true", from Homer and substantivized it into *etymon*, the true sense of a word, to describe their method of verifying an authentic text of Homer.

[8] Even a casual survey of the literature will discover frequent occurrences of terms such as input, monitoring, and feedback.

Teaching in Indonesia

Tom Cope

The consequences of the Vietnam War linger on. Refugees are still fleeing Vietnam, Cambodia, and Laos in search of safe havens. Decisions of the past, made by nearsighted political and military representatives from several near and distant lands, gave rise to this situation, a situation that was perhaps unanticipated by all involved. The wars created shattered lives from shattered countries and changed the lives of millions of people who are still struggling to survive in ways previously unknown to them. They are looking for and hoping to find a place to pursue a new life and perhaps raise a family in peace. From 1983 to 1984, I was employed by the Experiment in International Living (EIL) to teach United States Cultural Orientation in the Refugee Processing Center at Galang, Indonesia. What follows is an overview of the situation and a brief discussion of the need for compassion when teaching in such an environment.

Galang: The Refugee Processing Center

Galang is no-man's land, a small isolated island in the Riau island chain of Indonesia, located a short distance from Singapore. To the refugees, it was a half-way point, a place where many would learn to hope again and prepare for a later journey to a new life. They had chosen, for various reasons, to leave their homelands and were now 'in transit' to other countries. They were shedding old ways, old lifestyles, and old habits. Most had left behind family, friends, and a land they knew and loved. Most knew that perhaps they would never return, and indeed if they did, life as they knew it would never be the same.

The refugee camp at Galang had two main sites with a total population of between six and nine thousand at any given time in 1983 and 1984. Site 1 housed new arrivals and refugees who were bound for France, Canada, Australia, and countries other

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than the United States. Site 2 housed mainly refugees who had been accepted for entry by the United States Immigration and Naturalization Service (INS) and were on their way to the United States. Often after waiting in Site 1 for several months, they were relocated to Site 2 and awaited their turn to enter the Intensive English as a Second Language Program, Cultural Orientation, and Pre-Employment Programs administered by EIL.

The conditions in Galang were not good. The refugees in Site 1 lived in communal buildings often with only sarongs or carboard separating families from one another.[1] In site 2, the refugees lived in small apartment-like structures made of wood with at least 4 people to a room. The rooms were approximately 1.2 by 2 meters. All refugees shared taps for water and bathrooms.

Illness and diseases such as malaria and tuberculosis were common, though various international and indigenous medical personnel managed to keep potential epidemics of any given disease under control. Water shortages were common, and most food was shipped in. The refugees were supplied seeds at times, and industrious ones tilled the soil and nurtured small gardens to supplement their weekly food allotment. The camp had a few small shops offering various services and commodities, and these were patronized by those fortunate enough to have money.

The lessons the refugees received in Galang were most often provided by Indonesian teachers who had been trained as professional ESL teachers in their home country. Many of the Indonesian teachers in Site 2 had never been outside of Indonesia, let alone to the United States. Yet, they worked hard to compensate for this, especially when teaching the culture of the United States. Thus, though our situation in Galang was, unfortunately, not unique in today's world, we truly were a multi-lingual and multi-cultural community. Indonesians, Americans, and representatives from a multitude of nations lived and worked together towards the common goal of preparing these newest Americans for what lay ahead. Many different qualities were needed in this situation: being able to work together despite cultural and linguistic differences, working under pressure in adverse conditions, and, perhaps most importantly, possessing or developing compassion.

When referring to a teacher's need for compassion in this environment, an environment which in many ways represents much of the third world, I do not advocate or mean that one should feel pity for the students, but rather empathy. In the past, I have encountered teachers of English as a second language who treat and teach their students as children, pitying them with little or no attempt at understanding. I disagree with this not only because it undermines our goals as teachers, but also because it gives little credit to competent, intelligent adults who by choice, consequence, or fate have landed in our classrooms. Compassion in this situation, to me, means and mandates that the teacher put extra effort into trying to understand the student and his or her situation. This might mean trying to understand some reasons for existing economic disparities in our world today, cultural attributes, or some of the history that has led to the student now being labeled as a representative member of the third world. I would like to give an example of what I mean.

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[1] Sarongs are pieces of cloth approximately 1 meter by 2 meters.

The Need for Compassion: Team Sokha

Team Sokha is Cambodian. Her family was torn apart during the terror preceding and following the collapse of the United States supported Cambodian government in April, 1975. Her husband and other family members were killed or lost in Cambodia between 1972 and 1982. After spending several months in the camps of Thailand, she and her one accompanying son were in Galang Site 1, awaiting departure for France.

I met Team because she was a relative of a former student of mine in the United States. Prior to my departure for Indonesia, I was asked by this student to try to locate her and give her a little money, a twenty-dollar bill. A few weeks after my arrival in the camp, I found Sokha and gave her the money; we became friends of circumstance. I felt terribly sorry for her and her situation, and I fear this was the basis of our early friendship, at least on my part. She spoke very little English and I even less Khmer, so our early communications were difficult and only occasionally assisted by a translator.

I asked her about her life before the war, and she described it as best she could. I asked and learned about some of her experiences during the war and the reign of Pol Pot. We talked about her journey from Cambodia to Thailand and eventually Indonesia. She often lapsed into silence with tears filling her eyes. Yet, on many Saturdays, she and her son would walk the two miles between Site 1 and Site 2, usually with some food, to talk and visit some more. One day, Sokha sent notice to me that she was leaving in a few days, off to begin a new life in France. After spending several months in Galang, she had grown accustomed to the camp as best she could. Now, her fears surfaced again, for she wondered what lay ahead. Thanks to Sokha and many other refugees, my sorrow gave way to compassion and a need to know and understand how she and the thousands like her had become the refugees they were.

Compassion Redirected

I believe that this change of attitude took place because I began to see Team and others like her not as "poor" refugees but as people like myself. Although the situation for Team and most others in the third world differs from that in the industrialized world in many ways–family relationships, the physical and social environment, horrors that may have occurred in the past–there are also many similarities. Parents most often want and try to obtain the best for their children, desire secure and fulfilling employment, appreciate a regular supply of food that can be purchased within budgets, hope for good medical and educational facilities, and so on. Although these general desires are perhaps common among all people, our present day political and economic systems see to it that realities are not. It was understanding Team's situation and seeing her in this aspect that began to change my feelings from pity to compassion.

When teaching in the third world, we should remember this need to understand and focus on not only differences but similarities as well. Very often we see only the obvious difference, that physically it is a much harsher and less abundant environment. For the teacher, however, this does have direct implications. Facilities, materials, and equipment which a teacher in a developed country may take for granted are often in short supply or totally unavailable. Innovation for materials creation, for example, is a definite asset for teaching in the third world. There is a strong need for creativity, for the ability to make use of what is available. A teacher needs to know, or be willing to learn, how to manipulate what resources are available to help achieve a lesson's goal.

The social environment is also very different in many respects. National political and economic goals and their realities often determine such things as a student's ability to attend classes on a regular basis or might limit any previous experience with an educational institution at all. Problems also arise due to family economics, which might influence, for example, the student's ability to concentrate in the classroom.

Despite these types of problems, we should remember the desires we share and do our best to gain understanding and develop compassion in these situations. In the refugee camp, as in many third world countries where a teacher might find him- or herself, compassion is essential. As described, our students had often undergone extreme physical and mental hardship to arrive at the halfway point. Most carried within their minds and hearts hopeful dreams and desires for their own and their family's future, though their dreams were often couched in fears of the unknown, the uncertainties of tomorrow influenced by memories of the not too distant past.

One way to discover similarities, as well as differences, is to gain an understanding not only of the students' situation but also of their history and culture. When teaching culture, we in Galang would often elicit and supply information in a linear and sequential fashion. For example, when presenting information and teaching a lesson on the roles of men and women in the United States, we would first elicit information about the roles of men and women in our students' native countries. Second, we would elicit information about present circumstances in the camp. And third, we would teach, as best we could, about the roles of men and women in the United States today. I should note that for most of the refugees this information was received from the teacher (most often Indonesian) through a translator. Various hands-on and functional activities, such as shopping practice in simulated stores, were also explained by the teacher passing information through the translator. This model was applicable and applied to a wide variety of lessons, and in the process, non-third world representatives such as myself learned a great deal.

Compassion, as I have tried to explain and describe it, was essential for successful teaching in Galang. It is also essential for teachers in most third world countries today. Difficulties in the classroom can often stem from a lack of understanding on the part of the teacher. Having a sense of compassion for the student and his or her environment can help to contribute to overcoming these difficulties and enable us to better achieve our goals as teachers.

Jane Eyre Finds a Place in the Sudan

Theresa H. Molyneux

On my way to the intermediate school for girls, the local *walids* ran and tagged after me.[1] They would only come close enough to touch me, shriek, and dissolve into giggles as they scattered into the wide dusty lanes that divided up the village of Tokar in the Sudan.

That day I was too distracted to notice them. It was just over a kilometer from the health clinic to the school, a vigorous twenty minute walk. Without looking, I could see the men in the marketplace shaking their heads over the white woman always in a hurry. It was not their way and seemed an intrusion to the slow-paced desert environment.

As I entered the school building, the other teachers motioned for me to come and join them. The old woman slipped out to bring tea, Raga nursed her son between classes, and Nadia tried to smooth my fallen hair. Sunlight streamed through the two small windows. The shiny turquoise blue shutters framed the mosque against the low mud buildings. It felt good to rest, to be sitting among them laughing and practicing my Arabic. Finally I was feeling as though I belonged.

The bell rang. I finished tea and walked to the advanced class in English Literature. "Good morning teacher," loudly chorused thirty-eight girls.

"Good morning students; please sit down and turn to chapter twenty-seven of *Jane Eyre*."

An air of anticipation filled the room. After six weeks, I had finally gained their interest, enthusiasm, and involvement with the character of Jane Eyre. In my first lessons, I had dutifully read through each chapter, carefully enunciating each word and writing the difficult ones on the blackboard for review. Learning by rote was a colonial tradition upheld as the model of a classical education. The senior teacher informed me that any student speaking out of turn or misbehaving would be punished and sent home—to the disgrace of her family. It was my duty as a teacher to keep everyone in strictist form.

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[1] *Walid* is the Arabic word for boy.

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I remember thinking, "Yes, of course. I am a guest in this country. I will set a good example by respecting and adhering to their customs, their outdated version of teaching language and literature." It was not my place to question or introduce change. After all, had I not come here to experience the differences from my own country?

As each lesson progressed, I became painfully aware that the majority of the students did not and could not comprehend the complex, but rich, usage of the English language that made *Jane Eyre* a classic novel. How could I help them to appreciate, understand, and enjoy the drama and beauty of *Jane Eyre*? I remembered my own unfolding enjoyment when I had first read *Jane Eyre* at thirteen years of age–how I grew to love and admire the orphan who rose above her circumstances.

In my other work at the health clinic as a health educator I found my mind constantly going back to the confused and disinterested faces of my students. True, there were many differences that separated their lives from an understanding of *Jane Eyre*, but there were also many commonalities in the individual and human struggle to master one's life. I wanted them to love and feel for *Jane Eyre* as I did. I posed myself the challenge. I would find a way to help them master the language, to really know and understand *Jane Eyre*. After all, I reasoned, reading should be a pleasure, a world to discover.

We started by recreating the England Jane Eyre lived in. I assigned individual groups to draw and cut out pictures from magazines to depict scenes from each chapter. I assigned the advanced students to the different characters through pantomime and role-playing. Gradually, the other girls asked to participate; their initial reluctance gave way to the novelty and break in routine. Every Friday we would discuss how the characters felt and his or her motives. I tried to draw analogies to their lives and culture.

As we progressed through each chapter–more slowly now–I noticed a gradual absorption and comprehension building up. Even the girls who never spoke up and were too shy to look me in the eye were asking questions and participating in class discussions. Secure in my satisfaction, I thought, "This proves it. Learning a language can be fun and not an arduous, tedious task."

True, my method did not fit in with the traditional manner of teaching, but the students were learning, they understood, and they wanted to learn more. I could hardly wait before the other teachers began to notice.

Several weeks later, the senior teacher, Saaida, who had assigned me to my class, stopped me and asked to see me after class–probably, I thought, to arrange another women's party. I was starting to feel quite comfortable socially in the segregated Muslim society.

"Theresa," Saaida said quietly, then hesitated, "The girls in your class are very noisy. They do not sit and listen to you."

I interrupted, "But the girls are really learning their English. It is much better, and they like the lessons when we all participate."

"Theresa," Saadia continued with a tone of exasperation in her voice, "this is not the way we teach. The students are to sit and pay attention as you read to them. The girls are having too much fun! The classroom is not a place to have fun. It is a place to learn. How can we teach them to respect their teachers when you allow this?"

I started to say, "Don't you realize. . ." then stopped. I knew what she was saying. Even though the girls were doing well and advancing in their English, I had gone beyond the boundaries of what was considered acceptable in their school, their society. I paused in my reflection. I should have given more thought to what I was doing and the consequences. What could I say to the girls? How would they finish reading *Jane Eyre*?

Saadia said, "Theresa, please do not feel bad; we would still like you to continue teaching, but in the way we ask." I nodded my head and said I would be in class the next day. As I slowly walked home, a sadness welled up inside of me. I thought of all the times I had sat in a classroom bored, frustrated, and not understanding the subject before me. What opportunities had I missed to know and look at something in a different way and with insight? When had I come to realize what is meant by the love of learning?

In class, I returned to reading and reviewing each lesson. No one mentioned the return to the old format. Everyone knew what had happened and wanted to spare me any further embarrassment. It was nearing the end of the term. A party for the whole school was to be held the following Friday after class. I, as the only foreign teacher, would be their guest.

Friday arrived. Amazingly, the run-down school building came alive with color as the girls in their best *tobes* ran about getting organized.[2] As I sat with the other teachers, I was awestruck by the events before me: the traditional music, poetry, and dance and the beauty and composure the girls displayed as they performed. A hush fell over the outdoor stage. A play was about to begin.

I found myself engrossed, trying to figure out the characters and the plot. My Arabic was not advanced enough to pick up everything they were saying. I began to notice the students looking toward me and smiling. One of my best pupils, Buthina, walked out on stage dressed in a man's white shirt, brown pants, and a felt hat. Beside her was Amani, in a long white lace dress with a veil covering her braids, clutching flowers. The cast of characters–Mrs. Fairfax, the minister, the lawyer, and the witness–took their places. The ceremony was about to begin. Jane Eyre was going to marry Mr. Rochester! My surprised look spread into a smile. My fifteen advanced students were performing an Arabic version of *Jane Eyre*, complete with costumes. The play progressed at a high pitch as the witness, dressed in black, angrily stormed into the ceremony declaring, "Mr. Rochester cannot marry Jane Eyre, for he already has a wife!"

The audience gasped–poor Jane Eyre!–and the curtain fell. My eyes filled with tears as I thought of all the preparation and work my students had put into the play. It was their way of saying "thank you" and that they would always remember the teacher who helped them to know and love *Jane Eyre*.

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[2] *Tobes* are the traditional dress of Sudanese women.

One Year in Bangkok: An American Teacher's Experiences in a Thai University

Keith Maurice

If, as the recent song goes, one night in Bangkok makes a hard man humble, then what will a year do? Tourists often come into the city, look for the quick moments of fun, and then go back to their regular lives back home with lots of instant impressions of one corner of Thai culture. Those who live and work here have greater opportunities to see more of the society, to experience its patterns and processes, and to come face to face with their own problems in dealing with it. This article focuses on one teacher's insights about university life in Bangkok. While the experiences may seem similar to other foreign teachers in the city, perceptions and conditions vary considerably from individual to individual and from institution to institution.

Context

Mahidol University is a scientifically and medically oriented institution with a very good reputation in Thailand. In the Department of Foreign Languages, there are usually about 20 Thai teachers and four or five foreign teachers. Most of the teachers have M.A. degrees from the United States or the United Kingdom. The situation would seem, on the surface at least, to be a good one for cross-cultural communication. That is to say, the people are highly educated, and most have experienced life abroad.

There are, however, certain factors which complicate the matter. For example, 95% of the Thai teachers are women while 100% of the foreign teachers are men. Culturally different communication patterns, such as directness versus indirectness, may be even more distinct due to culturally different sexual roles. The fact that most Thai teachers are government officials with lifetime employment, and foreign teachers are tied to yearly contracts, though with considerably higher salaries, can also cause conflicting concerns and perceptions about various matters. Some Thais may

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feel an undercurrent of envy and resentment toward the foreigners, especially when the foreigners do not live up to their billing as 'experts' with all the answers. Some foreigners, on the other hand, may feel irritation with the easy going attitudes of some of the Thais, who do not seem to take the work seriously or who seem to work only for selfish reasons. "Some" is the key word here, since it is easy to find very committed and competent teachers; the tendencies of some cannot be used to describe everyone in the department.

Positive Experiences

In connection with my first job assignment, I was able to interview all of the teachers in the department by the end of my third month. Most of them appeared to be both thoughtful and articulate about departmental matters, for example, curriculum, materials, and staff development. In addition, I was allowed to observe the teaching of almost half of them, which gave me a more in-depth view of the university situation.

Another positive experience has come from joining and participating in Thai TESOL, the professional teachers' organization in Thailand. Through that participation, I have been able to meet other professionals who are committed to improving language teaching and the opportunities for language teachers. The organization is large, with about 1000 members, and well-organized. It has monthly seminars or workshops and a convention once a year; it also publishes its convention papers as well as other collections of special interest. Like any professional organization, it offers the opportunity to keep growing on a continuing basis in a variety of ways, such as listening to the work of others, sharing our own work, serving on committees to improve the profession, and so on. Where the world of work can sometimes wear us down, professional organizations can keep pushing us toward our full potential.

Finally, I have been given such interesting challenges at work as evaluating, teaching in, and coordinating the graduate program; editing a new scholarly journal; leading a curriculum task force; and I have been given freedom in doing that work. Whatever else we say about our surroundings, if we are given opportunities to do interesting tasks and freedom to carry them out, we should appreciate our good fortune.

Cross-Cultural Problems

Having said all of that, there are cultural patterns that cause problems for me and for other Westerners I have talked to here. Major ones include:

Lack of orientation and introductions

As an American, I am used to some sort of orientation and introduction to colleagues in the first few days of work. During the first few days at work in Bangkok, I was left alone with hardly any orientation, only one introduction, and very little to do. Having heard previously of similar experiences of teachers in other countries and having seen the same thing happen to new teachers in a language teaching company in Japan, I intellectually understood what was happening–that there was not much work or formalized interaction for new people–but was still very frustrated by what seemed to be a lack of concern for my existence. The frustration continued after the first departmental meeting I attended when various people looked at the new foreigner, but no introductions were made, and very little personal interaction occurred for me, except with the other foreigners. My expectation of some sort of introduction kept me from initiating conversations with strangers, and, for the most part, they did not initiate any with me. Over the next several months, I did get to meet everyone else and slowly learned, bit-by-bit, how things operate, but not without what seems wasted time and effort to someone used to American behavior.

Lack of greetings

Many Thais at my institution, including some of the ranking teachers, do not greet foreigners (and perhaps each other) in the morning, a custom which seems trivial but which is sometimes perceived by new Americans, and I suspect other Westerners, as a sign that they are invisible and perhaps not "human" to the Thais. Given the facts that foreigners are on year-to-year contracts and one foreigner recently did not receive a renewed contract, such absence of expected social discourse casts a shadow over other interaction and leaves newcomers with a feeling that the ground beneath is always moving. Because of my own culturally-bound (but still firm) values from small-town USA, which tell me that friends, acquaintances, and colleagues say something like "Hi, how ya doin'?" when they see each other, I still find the lack of such greetings irritating and disconcerting at a basic level, though I understand it better now. The understanding relates to the distinctive patterns of various individuals in the department; I can now predict who will and who will not greet me, which reduces the cultural concern to an individual one. In addition, since I work closely with some of the teachers on several projects, there is now a core of people with whom friendly repartee and meaningful interaction is a regular occurrence.

Lack of information exchange

Learning what is going on in the department is difficult. Some of the reasons are as follows: 1) communication is often carried out indirectly, 2) much of the communication of relevance to foreigners is transmitted in Thai and is not translated or told to the foreigners (except perhaps at the last minute), and 3) there is a tendency for many Thais to keep things to themselves.

In the case of the foreigner whose contract was not renewed, he was asked whether he was leaving by two teachers, one foreign and one Thai, who had talked with his boss. After talking with them, he checked officially and learned the distressing news. As for departmental meetings, often nothing is told to foreigners until right before the meeting.

In terms of what people do with information or opinions, there is a very clear contrast between the American pattern of speaking up and speaking out on various issues of concern and the Thai pattern of keeping one's true feelings quiet. If knowledge is power, it would seem that Americans use it publicly while Thais use it privately and indirectly. Frankness, that great American virtue, somehow loses its luster when transferred overseas. Some Thais seem to value the thoughts of their foreign counterparts; on the other hand, words uttered in public seem to thrust through the hearts of many others. Words, especially if they carry any critical meaning, tend to be seen as swords from an enemy, and rational discussion between Thais may rapidly sink into emotional outbursts. The reasons may stem, in part, from a concern over "loss of face" and the clannishness of some people.

In discussions with foreigners in meetings, many of the Thais at work become quiet when foreigners speak and do not venture comments or opinions. After one year of experiencing this, I am trying harder to muzzle my 'good' American communication and make it smoother and more indirect to blend in with 'good' Thai communication. This is a difficult task, because I still do not understand what 'good' communication in the Thai context is, though I do know that it is less direct than American. I have been told by several people, for example, that some foreigners are too direct and critical, and that foreigners should be more indirect with Thais. In my own communication within the department, I have found that very innocent remarks have occasionally been perceived as insults. However, in later attempts to be more careful about my wording, several people have told me that I am too sensitive about such matters. Presently, I am trying to be very conscious of how I speak, softly to the easily disturbed teachers and frankly to those I know better. However, some people seem to change day to day, from telling me that I worry too much over what others think on one day to shunning all interaction the next. This may relate more to personality than to culture, but for new foreigners, it takes much time to differentiate and in that time the difficulties can be substantial.

Using others' work and words without giving credit

Teaching Thai graduate students and editing a journal have made me aware of the totally different perceptions professionals in Thailand have about plagiarism and taking credit for others' work compared to professionals in the United States. As an educator trained to see such actions as equivalent to theft, it seems appalling; but the Thais who do it seem utterly confused and surprised by Western views. I have not yet found the reasons for these differences, but over half of my graduate students and at least three teachers have attempted to use the words or ideas of others without giving credit to them. When checked, various people have said that they did not plagiarize because they did not take paragraphs but just chunks of sentences. Anybody may unintentionally take a chunk or two from another's writing, but when those chunks, taken together, add up to 10–15 lines of a one page paper, it seems a bit much.

Cross-Cultural Growth

I am afraid much of the above sounds negative. It is meant, however, as an honest assessment of conditions that I hope may be useful to others. Living overseas is often a roller-coaster ride, full of ups and downs. Before I first went overseas to Japan, I told friends, "It probably won't be a pleasurable experience, but it should be a growth experience." During my time there, the growth melted into pleasure and a deep respect for the culture. In Thailand, the growth has come more quickly, presumably due to my previous experience, though I still need to learn more about how things are, why they are the way they are, and what I can do about them.

It is a cliché to say that life is like an onion, but in many ways the more we interact cross-culturally, the more the layers of ignorance and innocence are peeled away. My experiences in Thailand have helped me to understand a little more of another pattern of doing things; from that, I hope, will come greater wisdom to tolerate differences and find the subtle ways to make the cultural differences complement rather than conflict with each other.

“Are you with the piss corpse?”

Joseph T. Gallagher

My experience as a teacher of writing began far away in East Africa, 1964. It was September, and I had just been posted to a secondary school in southwestern Tanzania as a History/English teacher. I had no qualifications as an English teacher, at least not by American standards. My only English courses had been those mandated writing classes in the first and second year of college. Academically, I had not “touched the stuff” in eight years prior to my arrival in Africa. My field was History, and I had just completed the preliminary exams for the Ph.D. in African History.

Why then was I assigned to teach English? It probably had something to do with the fact that English was my mother tongue, while for other teachers and students it was a second or third language, ranking in use behind Swahili and their ethnic tongue. Thus, I was automatically defined as being more “knowledgeable” and more qualified to teach. The fact that the school was in extreme need of an English teacher was also certainly a key factor.

In any case, there I stood before a class of about thirty African students in Form I (9th grade) at Songea Secondary School on that bright September morning in 1964, with the sun warming up the room as it heated up the corrugated iron roof above us. Being the new teacher on the school compound, I was the center of attention, especially for those students to whom I would be teaching English for the next four years. As I introduced myself, one student sprung from his seat and queried, “Are you with the piss corpse?” Not sure of what I heard, I asked the student if he would repeat the question. Only then did it dawn on me that he had meant Peace Corps. Thus was my introduction to teaching English as a foreign language. It turned out to be a much better experience than I could have foreseen at the time, and in the process, I did learn a lot about writing.

Tanzania had inherited a British educational system when it became one of the newly independent nations in 1961, and as a result of the early post-colonial framework, the pupils were

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required to take the Cambridge Overseas Examinations at the end of their fourth year in secondary school. The exams were demanding, and only one out of every four would pass them. If a pass was not secured on the English language section, a candidate was not granted the highly valued secondary school certificate and was automatically excluded from the list of those who might be chosen to go on for further education.

Because of this, I found myself compelled to become an adequate teacher of English, and the eagerness of the students added to my motivation. In the last three months of my first academic year there, the pupils in Form IV, the graduating class, petitioned for extra help from the English teachers. So I found myself assisting the Form IV English master by taking on extra classes that began at 6:00 a.m. each morning excluding Sundays. Such additional hours of instruction were facilitated by the fact that this was a boarding school and the teachers and students lived on the school compound, but it never completely eased matters.

It took several months for the exam results to be returned from England and the outcome was that only 27% had passed in English. The students were angry, and their anger at such a low success rate soon became involved with a matter of nationality. There was no British teacher of English at the school, and it was felt that the American teachers were not as well prepared to teach the English language. This was important to me since I had been designated as the Form IV English master for the next year. Being an optimist, I hoped that the Ministry of Education would quickly post a properly qualified English teacher in response to a long-neglected request by our headmaster. There was no immediate response and locally it was felt that the Ministry of Education was dominated by an ethnic group that favored its own area and did not treat fairly this remote section of the country where I was teaching.

I soon discovered that teaching was geared toward passing an exam drawn up by a body of examiners thousands of miles away. Fortunately, the teachers had copies of the old exams, and I looked through these eagerly. I remember as if it were yesterday one of the general types of essay questions on those exams. They usually consisted of one word, for example, "games". I thought the best thing to do was to show the students how to attack such a question. I can recall telling them to avoid writing in generalities and to break down the question into a series of paragraphs by making use of topic sentences. Thus, they were instructed to begin the first paragraph with these words: "One game that children play in my village is ____________." This was to be followed by another paragraph which could begin: "Another game played in my village is ____________." The final paragraph might start with: "But the most popular game children play in my village is ____________." I can also recall telling them: "If you know the techniques, it is easy." They liked the saying. I did too. I remember passing a group of students one day and overhearing them mimicking my voice and repeating that saying. Teaching can be heady stuff.

There was, of course, a lot of work. There is no way to convey how much I hated correcting those students' essays. I instituted an essay-a-week program and found my desk piled high with composition books I did not even like seeing. I still have a great deal of difficulty coping with grading essays or term papers. So deeply did I dislike correcting that I came to have feelings of resentment toward math teachers whom I viewed as having an easy day of it as I struggled with trying to come up with astute and kind observations on student papers. When one math teacher told me of the novels he had read in a month, I was really peeved.

But the year passed. The exams were taken, and we waited for the scores. We achieved a 64% pass in English, and I became a local hero. It was my first and only time to be a hero. For one brief moment, far, far away, in a different time and on another continent, I was superman.

I have often wondered how we were able to achieve so much that year. I was not really a great teacher of English, nor was I very knowledgeable about writing. I was, however, closer to the students' level than my predecessor had been and perhaps, then, was better able to understand their writing problems and assist them. I think youthful enthusiasm and fear of failure covered a lot of gaping holes in my performance that year. Perhaps this, along with the motivation to help my students, was enough.

Teaching in Yemen

Carol Rinnert

My teaching situation at Sana'a University in Sana'a, the capital of the Yemen Arab Republic (also known as North Yemen), resembled that at my home university in the United States in unexpected ways. In both universities, I was teaching in an English Department with a strong literature curriculum emphasizing British literature. Both departments had recently been strengthening their writing and English as a Second or Foreign Language programs. All my students at Sana'a University were non-native speakers of English, while over half the total number of students in my English as a second language, English composition, and linguistics classes in the United States were foreign students or immigrants with varying amounts of English language training and experience. In both universities, the generally highly motivated students worked hard to gain more knowledge of the subtleties of the English language and grow as sensitive readers and writers. However, I soon discovered that the surface similarities hid some underlying social differences which required careful handling on my part as an English teacher.

First, no public education had existed in North Yemen prior to the democratic revolution that deposed the Imam (the political and spiritual ruler) in 1962. Up until that time, the only possible avenues for education consisted of the Koranic schools, based on study and memorization of Islamic scriptures, and study abroad, which very few families had the vision to encourage or the resources to afford. Thus, a tradition of general education was missing, which meant that students had much to learn. Many common, everyday bits of knowledge for people in literate societies had not yet been assimilated by the general population in Yemen. Reading a map, understanding how an earthquake occurs, and donating blood were all new for most of my university students, and a few had never used a telephone. In order to succed in their university program, a majority of them had to stretch their minds far beyond the educa-

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tion level of their families and overcome superstition and fear in the society around them. For example, when the first earthquake in over fifty years struck in Dhamar, about fifty miles south of Sana'a, killing and injuring thousands of people, the rumor immediately circulated that the destruction had been Allah's punishment for men and women being together in university classes and that the women should immediately be removed.

Second, although both men and women attended my classes together, they had been educated separately through elementary and secondary school, so men and women shared the same learning environment for the first time in university classes. Because of the strict separation in the lives of women and men in Yemeni society, this intermixing was more unsettling and difficult for them to handle than it would be in less segregated societies. The intermixture of men and women in the university resulted in half of the women coming to classes veiled in the traditional black *sharshef.*[1] These were women who had grown up in the capital city of Sana'a; with few exceptions, the other half of the women wore trench coats and covered their hair with scarves. The veils seldom caused any problems in teaching English, although I found it hard to check mouth positions for pronunciation of certain sounds, and veiled students seemed to have more difficulty aspirating the [p] sound at the beginning of words. In fact, despite my initial feelings of uneasiness, the veils did allow the women wearing them to interact more comfortably with the men in the class, since any contact between them had previously been forbidden.

Third, I discovered early that at least one national security (secret police) member would be participating as a student in each of my classes in order to observe and report on student and teacher activities. During the two years I was there, the only difficulty resulting from the observation occurred when a female student was reprimanded by the school administration for taking a photograph of one of her male professors, an American. But the potential for trouble lurked constantly, and I had to tread lightly over subjects that are common topics in Western universities, such as dating customs or methods of population control. Writing, the main subject I taught, is a process of self-discovery: exploring ideas necessarily involves questioning values and "truths" taught. For example, questioning limitations in choices for women in Yemeni society, as some students were beginning to do, could have led to their being branded radicals or trouble-makers and perhaps dismissed from school.

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[1] The *sharshef*, which resembles a nun's habit, includes a cloth wrapped tightly around the face, so that when the black veil hanging over the face is folded back in class, only the eyes of the wearer can be seen. I found it amazing how quickly I learned to recognize people by their eyes alone and even more amazing how difficult it was at a women-only party to recognize the same person's whole face after seeing only her eyes for a year.

The "solutions" to all these possible difficulties required flexibility on the part of the teacher. In order to encourage students to think about and question ideas, I often used reading passages about cultural practices in countries as different as India, Japan, Mexico, and the United States and required the students to compare these beliefs with their own society's teachings. I learned that I had to present detailed explanations of the conventions of map-reading before students could carry out exercises in giving directions. After the earthquake, I developed lessons using materials on plate tectonics in order to acquaint the students with scientific explanations for the occurrence of earthquakes. Informal discussions on the procedure for donating blood helped students overcome some of their nervousness about giving blood for the first time, at their government's request, to help the earthquake victims.

In pair and group work, I first tried putting men and women together in order to get them used to working together, probably because of my own culture's assumption that men and women should regularly interact with each other. But I soon realized that a more flexible approach led to more productive interaction and more progress in English. I started letting the students choose their own groups, especially when sharing their writing in a workshop format. After a few months, they naturally began to work more comfortably with members of the opposite sex in role playing or discussing reading passages. However, with more personal writing on culturally sensitive topics like men's and women's roles in society and marriage customs, they usually chose to work in same-sex groups.

Looking back, I now realize that the students probably knew which among them were members of national security and by choosing their own groups, they could also choose how much to reveal of their own opinions and to whom. Trying to provide the same kind of flexibility in writing assignments, I learned to give students more choice in topics, which they helped to suggest. Given a choice, some students selected potentially sensitive topics like the advantages and disadvantages of the veil or the arranged marriage system, while others preferred less controversial topics such as comparing city vs. rural life or high school vs. university. In order to help students develop as thinkers and writers, I encouraged them to question, not just parrot, ideas and to think about what they read and heard.

Like serious students everywhere, the Yemeni university students I taught wanted to become wiser, more responsible members of a world community. They were concerned with the universal questions of the purpose of life, the relation of human beings to their environment, and ways to achieve understanding among individuals and nations. With some guidance and encouragement, most of them could develop and present their ideas in clear, well-supported, thoughtful arguments in English. As long as the teacher provided a flexible, supportive learning environment, the differences in their cultural heritage created no insurmountable barriers for them to communicate with other speakers of English.

As a teacher in the Middle East, I learned to question some of my own unspoken assumptions and began to realize how easily I unconsciously tried to impose my own values on my students. After having lived two years there, I no longer believe that the veil functions solely to oppress or that men and women in all cultures need to interact in all spheres of life in order to live fully as human beings. I also learned that it takes a long time to understand the values and assumptions of a new culture. Therefore, I am convinced that teachers in an unfamiliar culture have to be both sensitive and flexible in order to meet students' needs and to grow as individuals themselves.

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Bright Ideas

Writing Like an Author

Curtis W. Hayes, Carolyn Kessler, and Robert Bahruth

In teaching writing in the past, we have had difficulty in bringing content together with structure. Many of our students either wrote with interesting content but inappropriate expression or with appropriate expression but uninteresting content. We want students to write with linguistic precision, to emulate native-like discourse structures, as well as to write with meaning and purpose. We would like to present a technique that gives the student the opportunity to write with acceptable structure and interesting content. This strategy is a variation on an old technique–sentence combining–but with modifications.

Our modification takes the following form: first, we take a passage of published prose from one of the content areas–social sciences, sciences, or humanities–and write it out into its propositional statements in the order in which they appear in the original. We then have students rewrite or combine the statements as though (and we tell them this) they were the author and had the responsibility for combining the propositions into the discourse which originally appeared in print. One of the first passages we employ is the opening paragraph from James Clavel's *The Children's Story* (1981). The propositions are clear, the passage is from the humanities (narrative fiction), and it is easy for students to handle:

> The teacher was afraid.
> The children were afraid.
> Johnny wasn't afraid.
> He watched the classroom door with hate.

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> He felt the hatred deep within his stomach.
> The hatred gave him strength.
> It was two minutes to nine.

We ask our students to rewrite the passage but to adhere to the relative order in which the statements appear (for instance, "It was two minutes to nine" could not appear first in any re-write: it had to occur last, the reason for which we address below). After they have completed the exercise, they compare results to determine if what they have rewritten is structurally acceptable. While we found that only a few students approximated Clavel's original passage (proving that art is truly difficult to imitate), most did not. Yet our students rendered acceptable approximations. One wrote:

> The teacher and children were afraid but not Johnny. He watched the classroom with hate, a hatred from deep within his stomach. It gave him strength. It was two minutes to nine.

while another wrote,

> The teacher and the children were afraid, with the exception of Johnny. As he watched the classroom door, he felt deep hatred within his stomach, giving him strength. It was two minutes to nine.

We then looked at the original (which acted as a model of effective narrative writing), and once shown this, students, with our aid, could judge how closely their rewrites parallelled Clavell's original, and how far they were off. This model is employed to get students to concentrate upon grammatical forms in discourse in a broader context, beyond the sentence. The decision to employ various grammatical structures depends upon the function or purpose of the discourse. Grammar clothes these functions.

We have employed this extended version of sentence-combining to teach our students the characteristics of other kinds of discourse, different from the narrative. Scientific writing, for example, reflects an expository mode of writing, and it is the kind of writing that students must learn in order to write reports based upon observation. We follow the same procedures: we first reduce a report to its propositions and then have students rewrite them into what they believe could be the original. The following is an exercise that we use. In this exercise we give our students the number of sentences which they will construct from the propositional statements. The first and second paragraphs are to have three sentences, and the concluding paragraph just one:

What is a Laser?

1. Lasers are the world's most brilliant sources of light.
2. Some laser light is brighter than the sun.
3. Laser beams are powered by supercharged atoms.
4. Laser beams can cut materials.
5. Laser beams can drill materials.
6. The materials are as hard as diamonds.
7. Laser beams can be used in delicate eye surgery.
8. Laser beams can measure the distance from the earth to the moon.
9. Laser beams can measure the thickness of a human hair.
10. Laser beams are used in making things as different as burglar alarms and baby-bottle nipples.
11. Laser beams can carry radio signals.
12. Laser beams can carry television signals.
13. You sometimes see "laserphoto" on a newspaper photograph.
14. You know then that a laser helped make the picture clear.
15. You know then that a laser helped make the picture sharp before it was sent to the newspaper. (Lewis 1979:78)

(We instruct our students to replace the underlined *sometimes* with *When* and employ it in sentence-initial position.)

We suggest that such exercises will lead students to become more aware of their own writing as well as the writing of published authors, and they will strive not only for meaning but also for accuracy and variety. While our extended model will not cure all grammatical infelicities, it will aid students in "re-seeing" their own efforts in their attempts to write with appropriate form.

We would now like to discuss the additional strengths of our modified form of sentence combining:

1. Teachers are sometimes constrained by the writing materials they use; now they can prepare and teach their own writing exercises. The modifications we have suggested in this paper can make it easier for the teacher to bridge the gap between good content and appropriate grammar.

2. Students can demonstrate their knowledge of grammatical structures and can teach themselves the characteristics of appro-

priate discourse in any of the academic content areas. Different "genres" reflect different ways of structuring content (see Lackstrom, Selinker, and Trimble 1973; Goodman and Burke 1980; and Carrol 1984). Students using our modified version of sentence-combining move beyond the sentence level to the discourse level and have greater opportunities to see how grammatical structures operate at the discourse level. They not only have the opportunity to learn grammatical structures but also how they are used appropriately within sentences and across sentence boundaries.

Students will also be exposed to different rhetorical styles within this format. For instance, why is the statement "It was two minutes to nine" more effective, more necessary, and stronger at the end of the paragraph than at the head of it (what is a possible purpose)?; and why does "It was two minutes to nine" tell the reader much more than the time?

3. Students are provided opportunities to compare their versions with utterances that have already been judged effective models of extended discourse. Such activities transcend the mere ability to manipulate structures or even sentences. Students may learn the rules of combining, but how do they learn to attend to accuracy, content, and purpose? One way, we suggest, is by working with real texts. Students who attempt and are encouraged "to write like an author" are provided, in Smith's words (1981a: 635), a "demonstration" of what good writing is. "Learning," submits Smith, "never takes place in the absence of demonstrations, and what is demonstrated is always likely to be learned." And a rich source of such demonstrations is published texts.

4. Students who use this modified approach are involved in a cognitive exercise, a thinking enterprise, attempting to match their perceptions with those of the author. As one student related, it is a cognitive guessing game.

5. Such exercises are "communicative" in nature: they involve a series of sentences in an extended piece of discourse, the materials are authentic, and they involve students with integrative and motivating content (Celce-Murcia 1985).

6. Students are also provided a reading lesson. As Smith (1981b:795) argues, along with Gorman (1979) and Krashen (1985), we do not learn to write by merely writing: "The only source of knowledge sufficiently rich and reliable for learning about written language is the writing already done by others. In other words, one learns to write by reading."

In summary, as our students encounter difficulty in writing with accuracy, we must teach them to use appropriate grammatical structures for connecting meaning into language (Higgs 1985). The extended model we have described can point the student in the direction of controlling the grammatical resources of the language that he or she is learning.

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Blackjack

David O'Reilly and Steve Mierzejewski

The accurate use of modals in English is one of the most difficult aspects of English to teach. It often takes many class-hours of structured practice and drill before students finally acquire this skill. We have found that the card game "Blackjack" can be used successfully to practice the use of modals in an interesting and communicative way. The game helps to make students aware that modals have a logical probability value as well as a social interactional value, and it is helpful in clearly distinguishing these two functions.[1] The activity can be divided into three to five 40-minute lesson periods, depending on the level of the students. Before actually playing blackjack, the language used for probability and suggestions is introduced in the following way:

Day 1: Logical Probability Modals

Students are asked to predict some event such as weather conditions or the outcome of a baseball game. The majority of the answers usually contain "might," "may," or "will/will not." The next step is to ask students to give their opinions of the percentage chance of occurence for the same event. These numerical predictions are written on the board beside their verbal predictions. Here are some common answers:

Verbal Prediction	Numerical Prediction
The Giants might win the pennant.	60%
It might rain tomorrow.	30%
The Carp will win.	90%
It may be sunny tomorrow.	40%
Maybe it will snow on Christmas day.	I don't know.

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[1] The terms "logical probability value" (inference or prediction) and "social interactional value" (requests and advice) were coined by Diane Larsen-Freeman and Marianne Celce-Murcia in *The Grammar Book* (1983).

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The list is used to point out the misconceptions that many students have regarding the strength of their predictions and to explain the importance of being precise. Using "maybe" is too vague; many Japanese students use it when they really mean "I have no idea" or "I don't know." On the other hand, one will rarely have enough information to make a prediction with certainty, so, "It will" or "It will not" is usually inappropriate.

At this point a scale is drawn on the blackboard to demonstrate the nuances associated with probability modals[2] :

Degree of Certainty		Modal of Probability
definitely	100%	Will
probably	80%	Should
I think so	50%	May
quite possible	40%	Might
possible	20%	Could
I don't know		Neutral
possibly not	20%	Might not
I don't think so	50%	May not
probably not	80%	Should not
definitely not	100%	Will not

Students are then given a new list of questions to answer in order to practice the new information. If the questions are more personal in content, the students show more enthusiasm in their efforts. Peer error correction is also very effective at this stage.

Will Katsumi find a date this weekend?
Will Terumi win ¥10,000 playing Pachinko tonight?
What will Nobu do if he doesn't go to Roppongi next weekend?

Day 2: Social Interactional Modals

The next day the lesson focuses on using modals for giving advice and suggestions. Students are presented with a variety of situations and are asked to give advice. For example:

> Your employee (friend) is late to work (class) very often. Advise him to come on time.

---

[2] The percentages indicated on the scale are arbitrary and are designed to facilitate betting and help the students recognize the difference between modals. Opinions may differ concerning the relative probability of "might," "could," and "may." The distinctions shown reflect the authors' choice.

As with the previous logical probability lesson, their responses are written on the board and they are asked what the "feeling" is for each suggestion. Here are some sample responses:

Response	Intended feeling
You had better be early tomorrow.	It is better to be early than late.
You should come to work earlier.	It's a good idea to come to work on time.

It is then pointed out that some suggestion language is inappropriate in many situations. This is demonstrated by drawing a barometer on the board showing a progression from "Weak Suggestion" to "Strong Suggestion" and explaining that the most commonly used forms are "could," "should," and "might."[3]

Strong Suggestion	WILL	(no choice)
	HAD BETTER	(threat)
	MUST	(obligation)
	SHOULD	(recommendation)
	MIGHT	(one of
	COULD	many options)
Weak Suggestion	CAN	(many options)

Because Japanese students often use "had better" incorrectly and miscommunicate their intentions, we advise them that "had better" usually carries with it an implied "or else" and to use this form with extreme caution. The students then practice giving advice in the same situations as above (and any others that the students can create), and the teacher corrects for inappropriate use of modals.

The Game

On the following day, students and teacher each bring twenty 10-yen coins to class. Students sit in a semi-circle around a table and the teacher sits behind the table and acts as banker/dealer. The object of the game is for students to play against the banker/dealer. The banker/dealer covers all bets. Students accumulate cards so that the total numerical value of the cards held is less than or equal to 21. Cards are given the following values: ace–1 or 11; face cards (K,Q,J)–10; all other cards–their numerical value.

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[3] Inspired by Larsen-Freeman/Celce-Murcia in *The Grammar Book*.

Here is a modified version of the real game: all cards are dealt face-down, and the teacher deals one card to each person, from left to right, dealing to himself last. Each student places a bet according to the worth of the card (see chart below), and the teacher then deals one more card to each person. The first student to the left of the teacher can now "buy" more cards by placing more bets. When a student decides to "stay" (i.e., to buy no more cards), the play moves on to the next student, and so on. Play also moves on if a student goes "bust" (i.e., if the added value of their cards exceeds 21). When all players stay, the teacher must complete his or her hand. She or he draws cards until she or he also decides to stay. If the teacher's score is greater than or equal to the students' scores (and less than 21), then the teacher wins. If a player is bust, the teacher also wins. Players win if the teacher scores lower or goes bust. (At this stage process language could also be introduced to describe how to play the game: First, the dealer...; next, the players...; before the player bets, he must...; then the dealer deals another card...; finally,....)

Students are encouraged to ask questions to clarify the rules. Higher students usually ask many "what if" questions and begin using modals of condition. For example:

What if I get an ace, can I use it as 1 or 11?
What do I do if I have 16?
Can I stay if I have 15?

This is a good review for them to practice previously learned structures.

Betting 1: Probability Modals

Students are told that their bet must reflect their chances of winning. The probability scale is drawn on the board again and they are asked to predict their chances of success based upon the card(s) that they hold. This time a yen value is placed beside each modal:

¥10 × 10	Will	(definitely)
¥10 × 8	Should	(probably)
¥10 × 5	May	(I think so)
¥10 × 4	Might	(quite possible)
¥10 × 2	Could	(possible)
¥10 × 1	I don't know	

When each student has been dealt the first card, they are asked to predict their chances of winning. If they do not have any idea, they bet only ¥10; if they say "I'll probably win," they must bet ¥80, and so on. They may then add a qualifying clause either to change the force of their prediction or to explain it: "I could win, but I don't think I will" or "I should win because these are good cards." This procedure is followed until the first game is over.

Betting 2: Asking/Giving Advice

Players work in pairs. One player makes the betting decision but must seek advice from a partner. (It is useful here to discuss whether "had better" is appropriate.) The following structures give the students an opportunity to practice different forms of asking for and giving advice:

What can I do?
What would you do (bet)?
What should I do (bet)?

You could take another card.
You should bet a lot.
I think you should stay.
If you take another card, you might go bust.

When the second game is over, the players analyze each other's performance and comment on the wisdom of their decisions. This is an attempt to get them to use modal perfects. The teacher elicits such language as:

What could I have done?
What should I have done?
What would you have done (bet)?
Should I have taken another card?

I think you should have stayed.
You should have bet more.
You could have taken another card.
If you had taken another card, you would/might have won.

At the end of this game, students usually begin to use modals more confidently and accurately.

Betting 3: Conditionals

During the third game, students are encouraged to use the if-structure when making observations about their performance or when giving advice:

Future (Real)	If I get a King, I will win. If I lose, I will have no money left. If I get higher than a 9, I will be bust.
Present (Unreal)	If I had more money(now), I would bet ¥50(now). If I were you(now), I would take another card(now). If you were me(now), what would you do(now)?
Past (Unreal)	If I had had more money(then), I would have bet ¥50 (then). If I had been you(then), I would have taken another card(then). If you had been me (then), what would you have done(then)?

It is difficult for students to realize that the second group of sentences above refers to the present and not to the past. So when eliciting the conditional, the teacher can attach the tag "now" to denote present and "then" to denote past. This seems to help the students to understand the distinction.

Betting 4: Free Play

Finally, the students play a free game without interruption or correction. This gives them a chance to relax, talk freely, and to really play the game. Their interaction is recorded on an audio tape, and this serves as a quick review of modals in the next day's lesson. Afterwards, we suggest buying coffee for the students from the winnings (the dealer usually wins) and having an informal chat.

Blackjack has been used with students at all levels of English speaking ability. However, it is advisable to be selective with what you introduce. Obviously, if you try to introduce too much too soon, students will soon lose interest in the game. You may wish to leave out perfect modals and conditionals with lower level classes and introduce these structures in yet another lesson. However, if your sense of timing is good and you are very familiar with each individual student's ability, with proper preparation and sequencing, this lesson plan can be followed even with low-level students.

Make sure that your students have no moral objections to gambling. One of my Thai students was a Buddhist and was opposed to gambling; however, she was reluctant to voice her objection in class and face the possibility of ridicule from other students. So, it is a good idea to do some research beforehand.

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Book Reviews

APPROACHES AND METHODS IN LANGUAGE TEACHING: A DESCRIPTION AND ANALYSIS. Jack C. Richards and Theodore S. Rogers. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1986. Pp.171.

The language teaching profession seems to have reached a hiatus. Instead of books on new methods or exotic teaching techniques, we are seeing an increasing number of books which seem to be more interested in finding out where we are than in where we should be going. A perhaps justified trend towards caution seems evident. It is in this climate that we have recently witnessed the publication of a work on the history of language teaching by Howatt (1984), three works describing the current state of second language acquisition (Ellis 1985; Klein 1985; Beebe (forthcoming)), and two nearly simultaneously published works on methods (Larsen-Freeman 1986; Richards and Rogers 1986).

In *Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching: A Description and Analysis,* Richards and Rogers seem to encourage a more cautious view of the new theories and methods which they present. This is not done directly, but through implication, as the authors review the Oral Approach and Situational Language Teaching, the Audio-Lingual Method, Communicative Language Teaching, Total Physical Response, the Silent Way, Community Language Learning, the Natural Approach, and Suggestopedia.

On the whole, these methods are fairly presented. It would have been easy for the authors to take some shots at the traditional methodological whipping boys like the Audio-Lingual Method, TPR, and Suggestopedia, but to their credit they do not (even thought some proponents of these methods may disagree). Instead, they produce one of the most objective accounts of these methods that one is likely to find anywhere, accounts that are valuable to any professional in the language teaching field.

Two things become evident to those who read their book: 1) Ideas about language teaching have not really changed that much over the years, and 2) Methods that may look radically different on the surface may be very much the same at base. These inescapable conclusions are reached via the authors' framework for analyzing methods.

It is, then, necessary to delineate the authors' framework of analysis. Most importantly, the authors want to remain as objective as possible; they have "avoided personal evaluation, preferring to let the method speak for itself and allow readers to make their own appraisals" (p.viii). In addition, "the book is not intended to popularize or promote particular approaches or methods" (viii). Ideally, these are the guidelines one would like to see in such a work; practically, one wonders whether they can truly be attained. Can the authors maintain pure objectivity in reviewing such diverse methods as the Audio-Lingual Method, Suggestopedia, TPR, and Communicative Language Teaching?

Within the major framework of objectivity, the authors devise a more detailed framework of analysis based on Anthony's (1963) approach, method, and technique distinction. Generally speaking, these are simply the steps one takes from theory to practice. Richards and Rodgers find Anthony's distinctions lacking, especially in the differentiation of method and technique. They therefore rename and redefine the categories as Approach, Design, and Procedure, all of which are organized under method. Thus, approach refers to theories of the nature of language and theories of the nature of language learning. Design refers to the method's objectives, how the language content is selected and organized (syllabus), types of learning tasks and teaching activities, and roles of learners, teachers, and instructional material. Procedure represents "the actual moment-to-moment techniques, practices, and behaviors that operate in teaching a language according to a particular method" (p.26). Some will no doubt argue that this is not a significant change from the old categories or that the categories are no more distinct than they were before. Such criticism is beside the point, for whatever the criticism may be, it is still necessary for readers to understand this framework in order to see how each method is treated within it.

The framework above is not delineated, however, until the second chapter. Chapter one gives a brief history of language teaching and the ideas which generated various teaching strategies. This is the chapter that quite clearly points out that, at base, nothing much has changed in the field for well over a hundred years. For example, with the decline of Grammar-Translation, many ideas arose which would not sound outdated today, such as the ideas that 1) methods should be based on how children learn to use their first language, 2) meaning (context) is important in learning, 3) speech is the most important aspect of language, 4) grammar should be learned inductively, and 5) one should teach as much in the target language as possible. Such ideas were eventually organized in the 1860's as the Natural Method ("natural" referring to how it was believed children "naturally" learned their own language). Eventually the Natural Method evolved into the Direct Method. This method reached its heyday in the early part of this century after which, attacked by the structuralists, it declined in popularity. This does not imply that it disappeared anymore than Grammar-Translation has disappeared.

Richards and Rodgers seem to take a few swings at the Direct Method in this chapter, seemingly forgetting their recently stated dedication to objectivity. In fact, the Direct Method (and by association its most noteworthy present day proponent, the Berlitz Schools) is quite soundly criticized. No matter how true, to call the Direct Method "the product of enlightened amateurism" (p.10) seems like criticism. Certainly one would be surprised to see the Berlitz Schools adopt the slogan "The Center of Enlightened Amateurism." In addition, this method is said to have "overemphasized and distorted the similarities between naturalistic first language learning and classroom foreign language learning and failed to consider the practical realities of the classroom" (p.10).

Since it is the authors' intention to show that little has really changed in the domain of language teaching, one wonders whether criticisms that applied to the past were equally meant to apply to the present. That is, is such a criticism intended to cast its shadow forward onto those current methods which also hypothesize a connection to first language learning, (e.g., the Natural Approach, TPR)? If objectivity is the goal, it would perhaps be necessary for the authors to say whether or not modern methods have answered these historical criticisms. Not doing so may leave the authors open to criticism from proponents of such methods who may suggest that the authors are, in fact, evaluating through innuendo. This reviewer does not feel that Richards and Rodgers were using such tactics but would understand such criticisms.

Let us look at one instance in which the authors may be so accused, the chapter on the Natural Approach. I am not a proponent of the Natural Approach myself, but I believe its proponents may feel some sentences are more critical than they need be. Here are some sentences from that chapter:

> "We are left with a view of language that consists of lexical items, structures, and messages. Obviously, there is no particular novelty in this view as such, except that messages are considered of primary importance in the Natural Approach." (p.130)
>
> "We assume that Krashen means by *structures* something at least in the tradition of what such linguists as Leonard Bloomfield and Charles Fries meant by *structures*." (p.130)
>
> "There is nothing novel about the procedures and techniques advocated for use with the Natural Approach." (p.136)

The insinuation here seems to be that there is nothing particularly unique about the Natural Approach, but it is not necessary to use such tactics to show this. In fact, the authors do a good job in showing this by carefully dissecting the Natural Approach in accordance with their previously established framework. Again, having a section devoted to criticism would have avoided such problems.

On the whole, Richards and Rodgers do an admirable job in this book. Their presentation of methods is clear and informative. The division of a particular method into the categories of Approach, Design, and Procedure allows the reader to more clearly see the method's inner workings. This enables one to compare more readily various methods or parts of various methods. Where methods are camouflaged by what may be called exotic techniques, the authors point out their not-so-radical theoretical bases. For example, TPR, the Silent Way, and the Natural Approach are similar in the belief that second language learning should approximate first language learning. Suggestopedia, the Audio-Lingual Method, the Natural Approach, and Community Language Learning are similar in that they all view language learning as a progressive mastery of increasingly complex structures. Thus, one draws the implication from the authors that methods may not be so different as they initially seem.

Other methods are shown to share similar procedures. Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), for example, shares procedures with some methods (e.g., dialogues, pattern practice, use of realia) but is theoretically similar to methods that do not advocate such procedures. This seemingly inexplicable state of affairs in fact stems from a theoretical difference between the CLT advocate's view and the Chomskian view of competence. Whereas Chomsky promoted the importance of linguistic competence, CLT proponents such as Hymes advocated the idea of communicative competence. Though Richards and Rodgers discuss the evolution of the idea of communicative competence, they do not spend much time on the implications of the theoretical debate. Perhaps this is because such a presentation would lead them into presenting the pros and cons of the argument, which is not their real intent. Yet, there are times when one wishes they would do just that, for there are pedagogical implications which cannot otherwise be seen. The linguistic versus communicative competence debate has, for instance, led many of the advocates of communicative competence to promote what is termed a notional-functional syllabus. This assumes that certain communicative situations will produce certain types of language. But this view does not allow its advocates to escape from the Chomskian view that language is creative. No situation can be 100% delineated in advance as to the linguistic forms it will produce. The demise of the old Situational Approach (out of whose roots sprang the modern CLT) was caused precisely by its inability to answer this criticism. It is also not clear how CLT advocates who deny a structural view of language plan to teach structures well above the learner's current level of linguistic competence. If a learner cannot on his own produce certain complex structures, is he reduced to simply memorizing various formulae? If so, how is this so different from what the audio-linguists proposed? On the other hand, a grammatically based communicative syllabus may not generate the grammar necessary for a particular communicative situation. Many of these issues are mentioned by Richards and Rodgers, but they are not really elaborated upon. Perhaps space restrictions prohibited them from going into much detail on such issues. Perhaps they felt that objectivity would be sacrificed. But whatever the reason, it is certain that some readers would like to see a more detailed exploration into the theoretical realm of methods, with perhaps the authors even giving some of the empirical evidence for and against each method. Admittedly, this would expand the book into a major work, but this book has a strong enough base to support such additional material.

The book's final chapter, "Comparing and Evaluating Methods: Some Suggestions," does that and a bit more. A good deal of this chapter deals with curriculum design. The authors readily admit that one method will rarely apply to every teaching stituation; practical considerations often override theoretical purity. This does not mean that theory has no place in curriculum design. If, for example, it is determined that the learner's goals are to use the language communicatively, then clearly one should design a curriculum in accordance with a method that has a theoretical base in language as communication.

The authors point out that it would be easier to choose methods or procedures if there were empirical data that showed some methods to be superior to others. But as Richards and Rodgers point out:

> "Unfortunately, evaluation data of any kind are all too rare in the vast promotional literature on methods. Too often, techniques and instructional philosophies are advocated from a philosophical or theoretical stance rather than on the basis of any form of evidence. Hence, despite the amount that has been written about methods and teaching techniques, serious study of methods, either in terms of curriculum development, practice, or classroom processes has hardly begun." (p.166)

And so we have arrived at the position of caution, if not cynicism, with regard to new methods or exotic techniques. Instead of advancing new theories, Richards and Rodgers suggest we assess the old. We should look more closely at how learning takes place and seek proof in the claim that one learning situation is better than another. Otherwise we can never escape from the haunting possibility that a choice of methods makes no difference in a student's language learning. What's more, we can never know if our students are learning because of what we do or in spite of what we do. It is perhaps this growing insecurity that has led to the current climate of caution that is becoming more and more evident in the field of language teaching.

Steve Mierzejewski

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TECHNIQUES AND PRINCIPLES IN LANGUAGE TEACHING. Diane Larsen-Freeman. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1986. Pp. 142.

One of the questions that I asked myself upon seeing this book was why Ms. Larsen-Freeman chose to write it. On the surface, it appears to be no more than a compilation of 8 methods that are well known in the ESL/EFL profession. That Jack Richards and Theodore Rogers came out with a similar book at the same time as well is curious. Why are these ESL luminaries spending time on what seems to be a survey of methods? Isn't an overview of these methods generally part of any graduate course in the field?

Further thought, however, reveals a reason why. In EFL/ESL today, there is considerable debate concerning the merits of various methods. After several years of continual innovation and "new" methods, we seem to have reached a point where some reflection is needed, to step away from everything that has been produced in the last few years, and look it all over. This is what Ms. Larsen-Freeman's book does.[1]

Eight methods of teaching foreign languages are presented in this book. These are the Grammar-Translation Method, the Direct Method, the Audio-Lingual Method, the Silent Way, Suggestopedia, Community Language Learning, Total Physical Response, and the Communicative Approach. This covers most of the methods currently being used today; one may wonder why, however, the Natural Approach is not included.

Larsen-Freeman states in her introduction that the purpose of the book is to provide teachers and teacher trainees with "an understanding of the principles on which these methods are based and of the techniques associated with each method" (p.1). Another goal is to generate discussion on why teachers choose a certain method or technique. Larsen-Freeman has chosen a unique format for achieving these goals (the format of the book is one of the strong points); rather than the usual dry commentary of what a teacher does, she takes us into the classroom to observe a sample lesson. Everything the teacher and students say and do is detailed; this "observation" initially functions to give the reader a very good idea of how a certain method actually works in the classroom.

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[1] It should be mentioned that this is one of the Oxford University Press series of books for teachers (the others being concerned with vocabulary, writing, and techniques in testing).

This is something which is definitely lacking in much EFL/ESL literature.

But the observation serves much more than this purpose. In the section following the observation (entitled 'Thinking about the Experience'), certain points of the observation are spotlighted and a principle is drawn from it. This and other principles give the reader a general idea of the language and learning theory underlying the technique.[2] For example, in chapters discussing the Audio-Lingual and the Communicative Methods:

Observation: The students stumble over one of the lines of the dialogue. The teacher uses a backward build-up drill with this line. (Audio-Lingual)

Principle: It is important to prevent learners from making errors. Errors lead to the formation of bad habits. When errors do occur, they should be immediately corrected by the teacher. (p.40)

Observation: The students try to state the reporter's predictions in different ways. (Communicative)

Principle: One function can have many different linguistic forms. Since the focus of the course is on real language use, a variety of linguistic forms are presented together. (p.128)

These are, of course, part of the theories underlying the Audio-Lingual and Communicative Methods. The principles drawn from other observations of these methods give the reader a good general idea of the theories underlying them. Larsen-Freeman shows us some common techniques of each method and relates them to an underlying language or learning theory. By first showing us the techniques and then relating them to theory, Larsen-Freeman gives the teacher perhaps a better idea of how specific techniques relate to a theoretical view of language theories than many EFL/ESL books which, although going into detail about language and learning theory, provide at best only sketchy ideas for the application of this into practical techniques. By doing it this way, Larsen-Freeman also illustrates how certain techniques can be used with more than one method.

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[2] In this book, Larsen-Freeman defines a principle as involving: the teacher, the learner, the teaching process, the learning process, and the target language and culture. These principles "represent the theoretical framework of the method" (xi). A technique is defined as "the classroom activities and procedures derived from an application of the principles" (xi).

A more detailed review of the principles follows this section. Once again, Larsen-Freeman uses something other than the usual academic formula for this. Instead, she asks and answers ten questions which teachers may, and should, ask themselves. These ten questions cover the goals of a method, teacher-student roles and affective interaction, the characteristics of the teaching and learning process, the view of language and culture, what areas and skills of language are emphasized, the role of L1, evaluation, and error correction. The answers to these questions give the reader a very good overview of the method in a way that is both interesting and informative. For example (from chapters on the Audio-Lingual and Communicative Methods):

> What is the nature of student-teacher interaction? What is the nature of student-student interaction? (Audio-Lingual)
>
> > There is student-to-student interaction in chain drills or when students take different roles in dialogs, but this interaction is teacher-directed. Most of the interaction is between teacher and students and initiated by the teacher. (p.43)
>
> What is the nature of student-teacher interaction? What is the nature of student-student interaction? (Communicative Method)
>
> > The teacher is the initiator of the activities, but he does not always himself interact with the students. Sometimes he is co-communicator, but more often he establishes situations that prompt communication between and among students.
> >
> > Students interact a great deal with one another. They do this in various configurations: pairs, triads, small groups, and whole groups. (p.133)

This also provides the reader with an easy way to see contrast between the different methods.

The final section of each chapter is entitled "Activities" and is divided into two parts. The first part consists of a few questions designed to test the readers' understanding of the chapter. The second part asks the reader to apply what has been learned. Here, the readers are asked to develop their own exercises based on the principles of the method (in this case The Silent Way):

> Choose a grammar structure. It is probably better at first to choose something elementary like the demonstrative adjectives ("this,"

"that," "these," "those" in English) or the possessive adjectives ("my," "your," "his," "her," "its," "our," "their" in English). Plan a lesson to teach the structures where:

a) You will remain silent and interfere as little as possible.
b) The meaning will be clear to the students.
c) They will receive a good deal of practice without repetition. (p.70)

These brief additions to each chapter make the book much more than a review of the methods. By doing this, Larsen-Freeman motivates readers to try and develop their own lesson plans for the method. If this is done, a reader might gain a better understanding of how a method can be suited (or ill-suited) to their individual situation. In this way the book interacts with the reader, rather than just lecturing to him or her.

Each chapter also contains a brief summary of what the teacher will do to follow up the lesson observed, a review of the various techniques used in the lesson, a conclusion which serves to ask the reader how she or he feels about the method, and a short bibiliography for further reading.

Critics of the book will no doubt point out some obvious weaknesses. One of these is that theories of language and learning are very superficially developed. The principles Larsen-Freeman draws from the observations do serve to give the reader a basic knowledge of the theory behind a method, but for anyone who is reasonably knowledgeable about them, nothing new will be gained. Each method is also shown in its best light. An "ideal" lesson is seen (although Larsen-Freeman comments on this in her preface), and usually at a level which may be considered best suited for that particular method. TPR, the Silent Way, Counseling-Learning, and Suggestopedia are all observed in beginning classes; and although Larsen-Freeman states that "...once the principles are clear, they can be applied to any other level class in any other situation" (p.2), any teacher wondering what to do with these methods beyond the oft-presented initial stage will be let down. As well, absolutely no criticism is given. The fact that a few of these methods are generally seen as out-dated and "reactionary" is not mentioned (although Larsen-Freeman does state in her preface (p.xii) that "not all of the methods to be presented have been adequately tested..."). Finally, by presenting the reader with so many complimentary and contrasting techniques, the book could be promoting a sort of unprincipled eclecticism: using techniques and activities from different methods with little or no regard to the theories underlying the techniques nor how they fit into a school's objectives.

Despite these criticisms, however, the book is worthwhile. There are many EFL/ESL teachers who do not have the background (or perhaps the interest) to easily digest a detailed overview of language and learning theories. This book gives a good general view of these theories in an easily understandable way. It also provides the teacher with a good overview of what goes on in each method and, perhaps most useful for the classroom teacher, introduces many different techniques which could be useful in the classroom. As well, having the various methods standing side by side cannot but help generate discussion of strengths and weaknesses, and perhaps lead to a rethinking of a teaching strategy.

As for promoting "unprincipled eclecticism," Larsen-Freeman assumes that the reader is discriminating and will both consider a method's principles carefully before using any techniques and modify them to fit a particular situation. She gives the reader the responsibility to make the decision, and refuses to push him or her in one direction or another. In this way both the many different situations a teacher may encounter and a teacher's individual style are respected. As Larsen-Freeman says, "It is you, after all, who have to make the connection to your own teaching situation. It is you who have to make the informed choice" (p.142). This book provides a basis for the teacher to begin doing this.

Paul Lehnert

Paul Lehnert has a B.A. in English from the University of Nebraska and a M.A. in ESL/EFL from Southern Illinois University. He has taught EFL in Côte d'Ivoire and the U.S. He is currently an instructor in the Community Program at the Language Institute of Japan and a co-editor of *Cross Currents*.

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Announcements

TESOL/IATEFL 1987 SUMMER INSTITUTE. Barcelona, Spain. TESOL and IATEFL are co-sponsoring a 1987 Summer Institute in collaboration with ESADE (Barcelona), Teachers College Columbia University, and the University of London Institute of Education. Course directors will be John Fanselow, Peter Strevens, and H.G. Widdowson. For more information, please contact: E.P. Mills, ESADE, Ave. de Pedralbes, 60, 08034 Barcelona.

SUMMER WORKSHOP ON INTERCULTURAL COURSEWORK. June 23-July 3, 1987; Honolulu, Hawaii. The Institute of Culture and Communication at the East-West Center will offer a workshop for college and university faculty on the Development of Intercultural Coursework. The general areas within which courses can be developed are the behavioral sciences, social sciences, and education. For further information please contact: Mr. Richard Brislin or Mr. Larry Smith, East-West Center, Institute of Culture and Communication, Honolulu, Hawaii 96848.

8th WORLD CONGRESS OF APPLIED LINGUISTICS. August 16-21, 1987; University of Sydney, Australia. For more information please write to: Department of Linguistics, University of Sydney, NSW Australia 2006.

JERUSALEM TEFL-TESOL. July 10-14, 1988; Jerusalem, Israel. The Second Jerusalem Conference of TEFL-TESOL will take place in Jerusalem. For more information, please contact: English Teachers' Association of Israel, P.O.B. 7663, Jerusalem 91076, Israel.

INTERNATIONAL HUMOR CONFERENCE. April 1-5, 1987; Arizona State University, Tempe, Arizona. The Sixth International Humor Conference will be held in Tempe Arizona with the theme of Humor–The World's Common Language. For further information, please contact Don Nilsen, English Department, Arizona State University, Tempe, Arizona 85287.

RELC SEMINAR. April 13-16, 1987; Singapore. The Southeast Asian Ministers of Education Organization (SEAMEO) Regional Language Center (RELC) will hold its 22nd regional seminar on The Role of Language Education in Human Resource Development. For further information and invitations to participate please write: Director: (Attention: Chairman Seminar Planning Committee), SEAMEO Regional Language Center, RELC Building, 30 Orange Grove Road, Singapore 1025, Republic of Singapore.

TESOL '87. April 22-25, 1987; Miami, Florida. The Twenty-First Annual TESOL Convention will be held at the Fontainebleau Hilton in Miami, Florida. For more information, please contact: Lydia Stack, TESOL Central Office, 1118-22nd Street, NW Suite 205, Washington, D.C. 20037.

Call for Papers: STUDIES IN LANGUAGE AND LANGUAGE TEACHING (SLLT). *SLLT,* a bi-annual journal based in Thailand, is now accepting articles concerned with the teaching of English as a Foreign Language and English for Specific Purposes. The focus is both practical and theoretical: the audience includes teachers, administrators, and researchers. Contributions for the July issue should be received by May 15th; for the January issue, the due date is November 15th. Articles should be in the range of 2000-5000 words. All submissions must be typed, double-spaced, and follow the guidelines of the *TESOL Quarterly*. Contributors will be notified of editorial decisions within 8-12 weeks. All inquiries and submissions should be sent to Keith Maurice, Editor, *SLLT,* Department of Foreign Languages, Faculty of Science, Mahidol University, Rama VI Road, Bangkok, 10400, Thailand.

Call for Papers: CROSS CURRENTS. *Cross Currents* welcomes manuscripts concerning all aspects of second language teaching and learning. We are particularly interested in articles on: 1) Language teaching and learning, especially regarding English as a Second/Foreign Language and English as an International Language; 2) Language teaching and learning as they apply to the situation in Japan; 3) Cross-cultural communication issues; 4) Teaching techniques ready for classroom use; and 5) book reviews. Please direct all manuscript correspondence to: General Editor, *Cross Currents,* 4-14-1 Shiroyama, Odawara, Kanagawa 250, Japan.

Call for Papers: MITESOL NEWSLETTER. The *MITESOL Newsletter* is now accepting articles which contribute to the field of foreign and second language teaching and learning in both theoretical and practical domains, especially in the following areas: 1) curriculum, methods, and techniques; 2) classroom observation; 3) teacher education and teacher training; 4) cross-cultural studies; 5) language learning and acquisition; 6) overviews of, or research in, related fields; 7) book reviews. Articles should be no longer than 1,200 words. All copy must be types and double-spaced. Please note that articles will not be returned. All articles and inquiries should be directed to: Donna Brigman, Editor, *MITESOL Newsletter,* 211 Oakwood, Ypsilanti, MI 48197, U.S.A.

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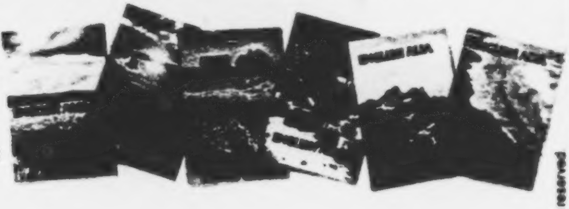

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ABOUT *CROSS CURRENTS*

Cross Currents is a semi-annual journal published by the Language Institute of Japan in an effort to contribute to an interdisciplinary exchange of ideas within the areas of communication, language skills acquisition and instruction, and cross-cultural training and learning. We are especially interested in articles on: 1) Language teaching and learning, especially regarding English as a Second/Foreign Language and English as an International Language; 2) Language teaching and learning as they apply to the situation in Japan; and 3) Cross-cultural communication issues. We also welcome reviews of recently published books in these areas.

In order to better serve the needs of our growing international readership, we strive to publish articles concerned with teaching methodologies, techniques, and general issues which are muticultural rather than culture-specific. While we greatly appreciate theoretical articles which demonstrate thoughtful and significant research, the need for practical and highly readable articles of interest to classroom teachers remains paramount. We make every effort to include articles which are directly applicable to the classroom. Short practical articles are featured in our Bright Ideas section.

* * *

All articles submitted for consideration should be typed, double-spaced, and in triplicate, with references placed in the body of the text in parentheses with the author's last name, date of the work cited, and page number. Footnotes on substantive matters should appear at the bottom of the page on which the footnote occurs. Please include: 1) a paragraph precis of the article, 2) a short biographical sketch, and 3) a bibliography which should conform with *TESOL Quarterly* style. Manuscripts should be 5–20 pages in length. Manuscripts will not be returned unless return postage is included. Authors of articles accepted for publication will receive twenty reprints. Authors will retain the right to use the article in future publications, provided that *Cross Currents* is acknowledged as the original publisher; the author is expected to refer all requests to re-publish his or her work to *Cross Currents*. *Cross Currents* will not give permission to reproduce any work published here without the author's consent.

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Summaries of the Articles

Creative Strategies for Large Class Management
Fred Anderson

Instructors of EFL in Japanese colleges and secondary schools often find themselves in situations for which their prior training and experience have left them completely unprepared. This article presents some survival strategies for teachers in these situations. Special emphasis is placed on dealing with the problems of large classes, low motivation, and a lack of contact hours. Differences in cultural attitudes toward learning are also taken into consideration. The article describes specific activities as well as strategies for dealing with problems concerning overall class management.

Cultural Differences in Non-Verbal Communication: Practical Guides for the ESL/EFL Classroom
Peter Gardner

Much has been written about the theoretical implications of cultural differences in non-verbal communication. Far fewer practical materials have been developed which can be used in the ESL/EFL classroom to sensitize students to this diversity. After briefly reviewing the theoretical background of three major types of non-verbal communication (kinesics, proxemics, and haptics), the author provides a number of exercises to help students gain an appreciation of cultural differences in non-verbal commmunication and common misunderstandings that may arise from these differences.

Developing Basic Conversational Management Skills
Kevin McClure

Conversational interaction requires prior experience on the part of the speaker and the listener. Non-native speakers need to become familiar with the expectations of English conversation in order to successfully converse with native speakers. Yet often non-native speakers do not know what to say in social and business situations which require them to participate in a general conversation–to make "small talk." This article proposes practical classroom activities which allow the student to become aware of appropriate topics for conversation, the need for conversational balance, and how, as a listener, to show interest in a conversation and encourage the speaker to continue. Using these activities, students will be able to monitor their own participation in conversation and practise conversational interaction.

Assessing the Spoken English of Non-Native Trainee Teachers

John B. Curtin

The current popularity of a communicative syllabus demands a high degree of oral proficiency on the part of the teacher. As there are more and more non-native speakers teaching English as a second or foreign language, this may necessitate a different approach to evaluating these teachers' oral ability. In the past, a set criteria based on native-speaker proficiency was often predominant. This article questions whether these criteria are realistic today and suggests a compromise which takes into account both the need for oral proficiency and the difficulties inherent in learning and teaching English in non-English speaking countries.

Bright Ideas

Games for Children

Paul Lehnert

Children are often very good foreign language leaners; they have an interest in the language, have a good memory, and have boundless energy. They also, however, have a very short attention span. One way to lengthen their span of attention is by using games to introduce and practice language. In this Bright Idea, the author presents a few games which actively encourage learning and are enjoyable for children.

Modified Close Procedure as a Method of Measuring Reading Comprehension

Neil McBeath and J.H. Marshall

Measuring reading comprehension and testing structural competence are the dual goals of a modified cloze procedure developed to fit the needs of beginner language learners with limited, specific vocabulary. This Bright Idea considers the merits of this procedure relative to multiple choice tests and explains how a reading passage with relevant informational content can be manipulated by students to demonstrate their understanding of the information and a knowledge of the linguistic structure.

ABOUT THIS ISSUE

In language teaching, there exists the idealism of theory and the reality of the classroom. Quantitative and qualitative studies seek to relate a variety of factors to second or foreign language proficiency. The results of careful research along with theoretical speculation are of course valuable and informative to classroom teachers. However, in the practical, real world of the classroom, theories must be as adaptable as materials. Although there is a wide variety of theoretical works concerned with aspects of language teaching, there remains a dearth of articles that are of immediate practical use to the classroom teacher. In this issue, we have addressed this deficiency by featuring articles which provide specific strategies and activities for the classroom.

In "Creative Strategies for Large Class Management," Fred Anderson provides suggestions for effectively managing conversational or communicative classes where unwieldy size and low contact hours render them impersonal and adversely affect students' motivation and attendance. Considering large class teaching as an exercise in human management, the author focuses on the importance of organizational strategies and the adaptation of methodologies and materials to fit the situation. Anderson explains how the teacher, working within a highly constrained situation, can give the students a sense of language as a versatile tool for active communication, a bridge to positive cross-cultural interaction.

This issue also includes two articles which provide practical activities to heighten the awareness of the cultural diversity of verbal and non-verbal communication. Peter Gardner considers non-verbal communication as integrally connected with the verbal component within the context of communication in "Cultural Differences in Non-Verbal Communication: Practical Activities for the ESL/EFL Classroom." Gardner maintains that by introducing the concept of non-verbal communication in the ESL/EFL classroom, the instructor awakens the students to the perils of ethnocentricity by encouraging an appreciation of cultural diversity. There are numerous theoretical works on non-verbal communication, but Gardner is aware of far fewer practical materials which can be used in the ESL classroom. To this end, Gardner has provided theoretical background information concerning particular forms of non-verbal communication but has focused his article on classroom activities which can sensitize students to cultural differences in non-verbal communication.

Differences in conversational style can also foster misunderstandings in cross-cultural communication and inhibit the development of relationships. Non-native speakers of English are often unaware of the cultural differences involved in making general conversation. In "Developing Basic Conversation Management Skills," Kevin McClure isolates some of the major problems related to conversation and proposes exercises to make students aware of their participation in classroom conversations so they can monitor their own communicative interaction in other situations. Analyses of sample conversations and a series of exercises to develop conversational skills are integrated into more spontaneous conversation situations which encourage students to take responsibility for the maintenance of a comfortably balanced conversation.

The emphasis on oral communication continues in the final article, "Assessing the Spoken English of Non-Native Trainee Teachers," by John B. Curtin. As the communicative approach continues to gain wider acceptance, the demand on the oral competence of non-native teachers of English escalates as well. Assessing the oral proficiency of a non-native teacher of English becomes a delicate exercise which involves the establishment of real expectations which can maintain an acceptable standard of linguistic proficiency. Mr. Curtin contends that the problem of interviewing and assessing potential teachers must be balanced with a consideration of the problems–including economic restraints–which sometimes face the non-native teacher trainee who has learned to speak English in the absence of a native model.

In our Bright Ideas section, Paul Lehnert provides "Games for Children," a catalogue of various language games which are suitable for multi-level classes. In "Modified Cloze Procedure as a Method of Measuring Reading Comprehension," Neil McBeath and J.H. Marshall explain how students can re-write a passage as part of a cloze procedure which reveals their awareness of linguistic structure while it tests their comprehension. Finally, Steve Mierzejewski has provided us with another provocative book review. This time, he looks at *The Foreigner's Language: A Sociolinguistic Perspective* by Karol Janicki.

We would also like to announce a Call for Papers for our next issue. We are particularly interested in articles concerned with English as an International Language, Sociolinguistics, and Methodology. We invite you to submit articles on these topics by October 15, 1987.

As this will be the last issue for our departing Editor, Paul Lehnert, *Cross Currents* wishes to thank Paul for his dedication to the journal throughout his editorship and for his invaluable advice regarding the compilation of this issue. We have appreciated his kind and good-humoured guidance as well as his efficiency.

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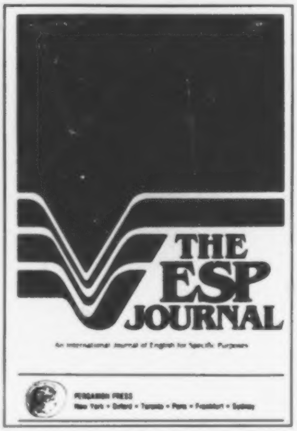
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Creative Strategies for Large Class Management*

Fred Anderson

Large classes, low motivation, and a lack of contact hours are just a few of the problems that confront EFL teachers in Japanese colleges and secondary schools. New initiates to the system, particularly foreign instructors, often find themselves in situations for which their prior training and experience have left them completely unprepared.

Frequently with 50 or more students, classes are not determined by linguistic ability levels. A freshman English class at a university, for example, might contain all levels from Beginner to Upper Intermediate. Motivation is frequently limited to what is necessary to pass tests. Contact hours may be as few as 30 per year, and, at the university level at least, absenteeism and tardiness are common. In addition, cultural attitudes toward learning make students hesitant to participate actively in class–a problem that is further complicated by the fact that many students may be learning English from a foreign instructor for the first time, and hence react with additional reserve, if not with outright fear.

Yet, despite these constraints, the role of the foreign instructor is generally perceived to be to teach conversational or communicative English. That the uninitiated should react with frustration, even hopelessness, is natural. Indeed, one might ask whether anything at all can be accomplished in a year.

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*First presented at the 1986 JALT Conference in Hamamatsu. The author would like to thank J.D. Brown for his comments on an earlier version of this paper.

Fred Anderson is a candidate for a Ph.D. in Linguistics at the University of Hawaii at Manoa. He taught English at Hakodate University, Hokkaido, Japan, from 1980 to 1984. He is currently a participant in the East-West Center at the University of Hawaii.

The purpose of this article is to provide the reader with some survival strategies, ways of coping with otherwise impossible classroom situations. The article stems from my own experience teaching Freshman English and English Conversation to non-English majors at Hakodate University, Hokkaido. Although to some extent it addresses all of the problems outlined above, I have singled out the problem of large classes, which is, I believe, pivotal. The impersonal character of large classes tends to cause, or at least to aggravate, many of the other problems. Mixed levels, lack of motivation, and high rates of absenteeism, for example, are clearly connected to class size.

The article is divided into three sections. First, I will suggest some sample activities; second, I will describe how 3×5 index cards can be used as a device for overall management of large classes; and third, I will propose a taxonomy of activity types to serve as a guide for the evaluation and development of activities. For additional ideas, I refer the reader to Pearson (1984), Hughes-d'Aeth (1984), and Enright and McCloskey (1985).

Two major themes underlie the article as a whole. One is that large class teaching situations can profitably be thought of as exercises in human management, where organizational strategies are fundamental and methodologies follow within the organizational framework. The second theme is that EFL instructors, especially foreign instructors on short-term contracts, rarely have the power to change the system in any meaningful way, and should therefore make efforts to adapt themselves to the system rather than expecting the reverse; any changes should be attempted gradually over time. Here I endorse the view of Candlin and Breen (1979), who have stressed the importance of adapting materials to fit the situation. I would like to add that methodologies and organizational strategies need to be adapted as well. EFL teachers should do what they can, in the context of large classes, rather than attempt futilely to accomplish what they cannot.

Three Activities

The following activities, a sampling of the kinds of things that can be done in large classes, share several characteristics. They all work; that is, they encourage active participation by a maximum number of students without undue preparation time for the teacher. Yet they do not only work; they have pedagogical value and are not simply time-fillers. They are also non-threatening to individual Japanese students and therefore are culturally sensitive. Finally, they can be adapted from essentially any textbook, a particularly important consideration in cases where the teacher has no control over the choice of materials.

It should be kept in mind, however, that these are only activities, class modules, and not complete lesson plans. I urge the reader to look beyond the individual activities and to view them as representative of different organizational strategies. They can then be modified or expanded to fit individual teaching situations.

Real-life information gaps

In addition to serving as a listening comprehension exercise, this activity allows the teacher to introduce himself or herself to the students in a way that they will readily understand. It is an adaptation of Lesson 29, "Computer Dating," from *American Streamline Departures* (Hartley and Viney 1983).

Figure 1: Student Form for a Real-Life Information Gap

COMPUTER DATING SERVICES, INC.

Name ....
Address ....
Telephone ....
Birthdate ....
Occupation ....
Marital status ....
LIKES ....
  Colors ....
  Food ....
  Recreation ....
  Music ....
DISLIKES ....

Students are given an empty form, as in Figure 1. (The "Computer Dating Services" title can be changed if you are afraid that students will take it too literally.) The teacher then reads from a prepared script which provides the information missing from the form. Or, rather than reading from a script, the teacher can refer to a form similar to Figure 1, but which has been filled out prior to class. The latter may produce more natural discourse. In either case, the students listen to the teacher and record as many of the details as they can. Following is an example of a teacher's script:

> Good afternoon. My name is Fred Anderson. That's A-N-D-E-R-S-O-N. I live at 1777 East-West Road, Honolulu, Hawaii 96848, USA. The stress is East-West Road–capital E-A-S-T, hyphen, capital W-E-S-T, road. My telephone number is 943-1951. I was born on May 15, 1953. I'm married and have a young son. My wife is Japanese.
>
> I used to teach English, but I'm not teaching right now. I'm a graduate student. When I'm not studying or writing papers, I like outdoor sport–jogging, bicycling and skiing. But in Hawaii you can't ski, so I go swimming. I also like music–especially jazz and popular. I like most classical music, too, but I'm not too crazy about opera. And of course, I like to eat. I like *sushi* and *tempura*; I don't like *shiokara*.

The level of difficulty of the passage can of course be adjusted. One might also wish to vary the difficulty level within a single passage, especially for classes with students of widely differing abilities.

There are a number of ways in which the exercise can be expanded after students have listened to the information once and filled out their forms. Time can be allotted for students to ask the teacher questions in order to elicit information that they were unable to pick up, or to elicit new information–things that they would like to know about the teacher in addition to what was presented. Alternately, students can meet in groups and ask questions of each other to elicit the information still missing from their forms.

The exercise can be used for any number of information sharing activities, and it does not have to involve the teacher as its subject. For example, if the topic of a lesson is the typical day of some textbook character, an exercise can be adapted using the basic textbook format, but centering around the daily activities of a familiar teacher in the school (not necessarily the foreign English teacher), a student in the class, a guest foreigner (for example, if a friend happens to be visiting you at the time), or some other familiar or interesting face. It is also easy to turn the exercise into a pair activity, where students exchange information about themselves, or to use it as a framework for writing compositions.

An obvious value of real-life information gap exercises is that students learn to listen for key points out of a stream of speech. Although this can be accomplished through other types of listening exercises, the use of real-life subjects does have an additional advantage: it restores relevance, an element that is too often absent from the EFL classroom; and, in restoring relevance, it enhances motivation. My implementation of such exercises was in response to students requesting that I tell them something about myself during class. I was the only American that most of them had ever known personally, and they had a genuine interest in me. Their listening abilities were such, however, that they would have had difficulty understanding spontaneous speech. Real-life information gaps allowed me to talk about myself in a way that was readily understood, using the students' textbook as a starting point. Although the information in the sample exercise seems basic, it represents exactly the kinds of questions that my students would ask me (usually in Japanese) at the beginning of a new school year. They wanted to know where I lived, what kinds of sports I liked, and whether I was married. Providing them with the information in English, in a way that they could understand, helped to raise their confidence levels. The activity also stimulated reaction from the students. Students who discovered during the exercise that I lived in their neighborhood, for example, would ask me after class about the exact location of my house. Learning that I was a neighbour helped to break down some of the barriers between foreign instructor and Japanese students.

Pair Dictations

Dictation is an exercise familiar to nearly all students and teachers of language. What many teachers may not realize is that it is a very versatile exercise. Riley (1972) has suggested dicto-comps and Speer (1980) offers several variations on the standard dictation: preassigned dictations; dictations preceded by timed readings; dictations with cloze materials; and dictations with grammar exercises. All of these are to some extent adaptable to large classes. To Speer's list, I would like to add one more: the pair dictation—a type of dictation with a communicative aspect to it. A pair dictation might be considered a combination of a standard dictation, or a dictation with cloze materials, and an information gap exercise.

Prior to class, the teacher prepares two complementary handouts, based on a single dialogue from the students' text. In each handout, the teacher deletes selected words or phrases from the lines of one of the two speakers in the dialogue. This principle is illustrated by Figures 2a and 2b, which are adaptations from Unit 12, "What Kind of Movies Do You Like?," of *In Touch* (Castro and Kimbrough 1979).

Figure 2a: A Pair Dictation–Tony's Part

You are TONY

TOMIKO: ________________ American TV?
TONY: It's OK, but I like movies better.
TOMIKO: ________________ do you like?
TONY: All kinds, but especially Westerns.
TOMIKO: Who's your ________________?
TONY: Clint Eastwood.

Figure 2b: A Pair Dictation–Tomiko's Part

You are TOMIKO

TOMIKO: Do you like American TV?
TONY: ____________, but I like ____________ better.
TOMIKO: What kind of moves do you like?
TONY: All kinds, but ________________.
TOMIKO: Who's your favorite actor?
TONY: ________________.

The preceding examples are shorter than the dictations that would normally be used in class, but they illustrate the general procedure. Students work in pairs, each with a different one of the interlocking handouts (either 2a or 2b), and each is told not to look at the other's handout during the exercise. Students then trade off the roles of reader/speaker and listener/writer, either dictating their own parts, or, when not dictating, recording what they hear their partners saying. An important part of the procedure is to instruct students to ask their partners for clarification in cases where they do not understand what has been said. In line four of Figures 2a and 2b, for example, if Tomiko has failed to understand Tony, she might ask, "*What* kinds of movies did you say you liked?" to which Tony would again reply, "Westerns." If Tomiko still does not understand the word "Westerns," the next step might be to ask Tony to spell it.

Pair dictations provide a way for students to practice a variety of language skills–speaking, listening, writing, and vocabulary building–in an interactive situation, and in a non-threatening environment. A particularly valuable aspect is that the exercise can be used as a means to teach students how to ask for clarification, an important part of the language learning process, but one that is often difficult to activate in large classes. Similarly, students can be instructed to give corrective feedback to each other; this can be useful in teaching the better students how to coach the slower ones. Many students often seem to be uncomfortable when not taking notes. This exercise allows them to write while they practise oral communication.

Matrix quiz games

Games are a good way to add variety to classes, to increase student motivation, and to review or preview textbook lessons. Many language teaching games, however, are difficult if not impossible to implement in classes with more than, say, 25 students. The type of game to be described in this section actually generates more excitement with larger numbers of students. In the name "matrix quiz games," "matrix" refers to a particular organizational framework and "quiz" refers to the fact that students (as participants on teams) compete to answer questions faster than other students.

To form the organizational matrix, the class is divided into teams of equal or near-equal size. A class of 49, for example, would have seven groups of seven; a class of 51 might have five groups of seven and two of eight. (An easy method of dividing the class into groups will be discussed later.) After the teams have been formed, each should be given a name. Any naming system is possible, but I like to use country names, providing the teams with homemade cardboard flags for identification. The flags also help to create motivation. Members of each team then count off; each member should have a number between 1 and whatever the total number of students on the team is (e.g., between 1 and 7 for a team of seven members). If some teams have fewer members than others, then a student on those teams with one less member will receive two numbers. In other words, each team should contain members with exactly the same numbers, from 1 to whatever the number of students on the largest team is. The class is thus divided up as a matrix that can be schematized (see Figure 3); each student has an identity as a member of a team, and also as an individual within the team.

Figure 3: The Organizational Matrix of a Matrix Quiz Game

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
JAPAN							
U.S.A.							
U.K.							
FRANCE							
INDONESIA							
THAILAND							
RUSSIA							

An easy-to-organize matrix quiz game is one that emphasizes text-skimming skills. During the game, students refer to a designated reading passage or dialogue in their textbook or on a handout. To begin, the teacher calls out one of the numbers. Each student with that number stands up; there should be one standing per team. The teacher then asks a question about the text, and whoever can call out the answer first wins a point for his or her team. (Alternately, the winner can be given a play money $1 bill. Money, I have found, often arouses more excitement than mere points.) Students can solicit help from team members, and should be encouraged to do so, but only those standing are allowed to answer for points. Play continues with the teacher calling the rest of the numbers at random. When all of the numbers have been called, and hence all of he students have had a chance to compete, round 1 ends. A new round can then be started. Increasing the point ante (or the dollar ante) at the beginning of every new round helps to generate excitement. New rules, if kept simple, can be added in the course of the game and often help to keep it interesting. For example, time limits can be imposed on the answering of questions.

As the game progresses, the noise level may rise markedly, as the students scramble verbally to get their answers out not only faster, but also more loudly, than their opponents. Unless the noise is such that it disrupts neighboring classes, there is generally no need for the students to practice hand-raising. My feeling is that the noise–the phenomenon of everyone actually yelling out words in English– is a welcome change from the normal passive Japanese class, and a step in the direction of more active student involvement.

The game can be continued until interest starts to wane or until the class period ends. Points are then tallied, or teams are asked to count their money and report a total, and a winning country is declared.

Possible variations using the matrix structure are limited only by the imagination of the instructor. Just a few ideas will be mentioned here:

1. Students can be asked to write answers on the blackboard rather than calling them out. Although this does not promote conversation, it does give the teacher a chance to correct grammar and structure.
2. Rather than using a written text, students can be asked questions based on a set of pictures, or on a listening comprehension passage.
3. Matrix quiz games can be used as a fun way to review grammar points, especially in classes where students are preparing for entrance examinations.
4. The matrix quiz game structure also works well with Total Physical Response (Asher 1977) exercises. Here, members representing each of the teams are called to the front of the class and asked to compete by performing an action or sequence of actions, or by manipulating an object, faster than their opponents.

Matrix quiz games are the best way I have found to motivate large numbers of students. They work especially well as a wake-up strategy toward the end of a class period. I attribute the success of this technique, at least partially, to the way that it meshes with aspects of Japanese society. It is in accordance with the emphasis on group, rather than individual, activity, and with the role of the teacher as an authority figure. And while matrix quiz games may be no match for baseball or mahjong, they do appeal to the competitive spirit of many Japanese students.

◆

Matrix quiz games encourage the better students within each group to coach the slower ones. Because the slower students can receive such coaching, they are able to answer questions that would otherwise be above their ability levels, thereby building up their confidence. Another value of the technique, as once noted by a student of mine, is that "the games make us think." Because there is competition to come up with answers as fast as possible, students do not have time to translate messages from Japanese. They are forced into the rare situation of having to do all of their thinking in English.

Although matrix quiz games can be used to practice a wide variety of linguistic skills, text-skimming is a particularly worthwhile one to focus on. A distinction is often made between intensive and extensive reading skills (Munby 1968), and, although language teaching frequently emphasizes the former, the importance of developing extensive reading skills is being increasingly recognized. Yet, it is difficult to find ways to incorporate these skills at the lower levels. In the matrix quiz game described above, however, students skim through their texts in search of quick answers. This valuable skill can be applied to extensive reading later on.

3x5 Indexing: A Strategy for Whole-Class Management

Without a comprehensive strategy for managing the class as a whole, the very task of organizing large numbers of students for individual activities–complicated by attendance-taking, creation of motivation, and other needs–is likely to take up more time than the activities themselves. Clearly, some kind of device is necessary to minimize the organizational pressure on the instructor and to maximize the activity time. As a solution, I discovered a very inexpensive, readily available, and versatile tool: the 3x5 index card. During the first class period of an academic year, one card is prepared for each student. As vital information, the card should contain the student's name and student number. Other sections can be added, for recording quiz scores (or scores on dictations or homework assignments), for marking attendance, or for other purposes according to the nature of the class. Figure 4 is a sample of what a newly created index card might look like.

Figure 4: A Student Index Card

3	Quizzes	# Absences
Taro Sato		

Preparation of the cards need not be a burden on the teacher. Using the blackboard as an aid, it takes only a few minutes to explain to even the lowest level students how to make up their own cards.

The set of student index cards comprises a very useful deck for the teacher. The card functions both as an efficiency device and as a means of personalizing the classroom (and hence enhancing motivation), as is implicit in the four basic uses described below.

As an Attendance-taking Device

In essence, this is a way of transferring the task of attendance-taking from the teacher to the students and, in the process, of helping students take charge of their own learning. Cards are arranged in envelopes in an attendance rack, such that names and student numbers are clearly visible. Upon entering the classroom, each student removes his or her card from the rack and puts it in an attendance box. The instructor removes all cards from the box as class begins; he then knows who is present and can call on students by name. After class, the instructor marks absent those students whose cards remain in the rack. Students whose cards have turned up in the attendance box after the initial pick-up are marked tardy.

As a Grouping Device

Dividing large classes randomly into groups for matrix quiz games or other activities can be time-consuming. Index cards provide a quick and efficient way to do this. First, the instructor mentally calculates how many groups he wants to form and how many students should be in each group, depending on the day's attendance. An appropriate number of cards for each group (selected randomly from the deck of attending students) is then placed on desks at different points of the room. Students move around the room, find their cards, and group accordingly. The whole procedure takes only a few minutes.

Conversational Activities

Being able to refer to individual students by name, though not easy in large classes, is a definite plus for creating a positive class environment. By keeping the deck of cards of attending students in a pocket, the instructor is able to call randomly on students by name, at any time, without having to refer to a big, awkward attendance book.

The deck can also be used as a tool for promoting conversation among students, either as a class or in groups. Drawing cards from a deck enables students to call randomly on students other than just their friends.

As a Communication Channel Between Teacher and Student

Important information, such as scores on quizzes or homework papers, or numbers of absences, can be recorded on designated sections of each student's index card. The information is then automatically available for students to review before each class period, when they take their cards out of the attendance rack.

A Taxonomy of Organizational Strategies

Figure 5 presents a model for classifying activities by organizational strategy. The taxonomy should for the most part be self-explanatory, but I will mention a few points here that are particularly relevant to the preceding discussion. The model defines organizational strategies and activity types along two dimensions. First, there is the focus of activity–whether control of the learning situation is ultimately in the hands of the teacher (T) or the students (S). Second there is the size of units into which students are grouped–class (C), groups (G), pairs (P), or individuals (I). Of course, neither of the parameters is absolute. Most activities are probably somewhere between being totally teacher- or totally student-centered. Furthermore, 'group', as a label for a size of units is ambiguous, in that one can imagine a continuum of possible group sizes from three students to half the class. As a model, nevertheless, Figure 5 can prove quite useful.

The two-dimensionality of the model is an important attribute which distinguishes it from other models of classroom organization.

Figure 5: A Taxonomy of Classroom Organizational Strategies

FOCUS OF ACTIVITY

SIZE OF UNITS

	TEACHER (T) (The teacher is in control of the learning situation.)	**STUDENT (S)** (The students are responsible for their own learning.)
CLASS (C) (Class members work on same activity, by themselves or collectively.)	**Type T-C** Sample Activities: 1. Dictations 2. Cloze exercises 3. Real-life information gaps 4. Jazz chants 5. Class discussions	**Type S-C** Sample Activities: ?? (perhaps Community Language Learning activities)
GROUPS (G) (3 or more students in each group, depending on class attendance.)	**Type T-G** Sample Activities: 1. Matrix quiz games	**Type S-G** Sample Activities: 1. Group discussion/ problem-solving exercises 2. Drama exercises 3. Card games 4. Board games
PAIRS (P)	**Type T-P** Sample Activities: ??	**Type S-P** Sample Activities: 1. Dialogues 2. Information gap exercises 3. Pair dictations 4. Problem-solving exercises
INDIVIDUALS (I) (Students work on their own individual activities.)	**Type T-I** Sample Activities: 1. Teacher-student conversations 2. Oral interviews 3. Private tutoring	**Type S-I** Sample Activities: 1. Independent study (students working on their own activities at their own pace)

(See, for example, Hughes-d'Aeth 1984: 16 and Kramsch 1987: 18.) It is often assumed that a teacher focus implies a class orientation, and that a group (or pair) orientation for activities automatically implies a student focus. However, as attested to by the matrix quiz games described earlier in this article, teacher focus and group orientation can coexist (type T-G in Figure 5). Futhermore, activities of this T-G type are particularly suited to large classes in Japan, as they appeal to the group-mindedness of the students, and also to the students' expectations that the teacher will maintain a position of authority. My own experience tells me that group activities that place too much of the responsibility for the learning on the students are more likely than not to fail. Clearly there is a need for a balance between teacher and student foci.

Using Figure 5, suggestions can now be made for the teaching of communicative English in large classes in Japan:

1. Organizational strategy T-C, the strategy that students are most accustomed to through the educational system, is probably the easiest to implement. Although many of the activities that fit in here do little to promote communication, they can be valuable, especially if an element of relevance is incorporated.
2. Strategy T-G works well in the Japanese context. Although my own experience with it is primarily with matrix quiz games, I believe that there are other ways that the strategy might be successfully implemented, and urge classroom teachers to experiment accordingly. Strategy T-P is also worth investigating, especially for classes that are somewhat smaller than the usual. Taken together, T-G and T-P activities might prove useful as a transitional stage between the traditional T-C oriented class, and classes that assume a greater degree of student control (S-G and S-P).
3. In most classes, tasks of types S-G and S-P need to be very rigidly defined in order to work (e.g., involving a specific writing task, as with pair dictations). However, if the number of contact hours and student motivation are sufficient, an instructor may wish gradually to introduce activities that are more student-focused.

Conclusion

I would like to return briefly to a question suggested at the beginning of this article: can anything be accomplished in a year's time under the conditions commonly found in Japanese college and secondary school English classes? My answer is "Yes" but just what is it that we can expect to accomplish? Major improvements in the students' linguistic or communicative competency? Very unlikely. Just consider for a moment that the number of yearly contact hours at a typical Japanese university is somewhere in the neighborhood of 35–40. In an intensive ESL program in the United States, it takes only about two weeks for students to get in the same number of classroom hours under much more favorable learning conditions–small classes, rigidly determined levels, and genuine motivation to learn, all in the context of a larger English language environment. And yet, even under such favorable conditions, improvement after two weeks is often negligible. How much improvement, then, can we reasonably expect to see in students' lingustic abilities after a year of classes at a Japanese university? Probably a miniscule amount.

The message is clear: EFL teachers new to Japanese schools may have to lower their expectations drastically. Likewise, school administrators and students should not expect the mere presence of a native English-speaking instructor to cause linguistic miracles.

But by creatively developing strategies that promote interaction among students, as well as between teacher and students, even within a highly constrained system, instructors can accomplish some important things. First, they can give the students a sense of how language is more than grammar and translation, of how it is a versatile and dynamic system of communication. Second, non-Japanese instructors can help the students get accustomed to interacting with people from other countries, which is becoming increasingly important considering Japan's status as a world economic power.

In short, instructors can work to accomplish a change in attitude, to create positive feelings toward the learning of English as communication, which the students can carry with them into their later lives. If they are ever in a position to learn English under more favorable classroom conditions, they will then be mentally prepared.

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Cultural Differences in Non-Verbal Communication: Practical Activities for the ESL/EFL Classroom

Peter Gardner

Introduction

Studies dealing with cross-cultural communication have traditionally centered on the verbal component of human interaction and neglected the enormous realm of non-verbal communication, which has been viewed as interesting, and perhaps amusing, but not necessarily important. With Birdwhistell's pioneer work, *Introduction to Kinesics* (1952), the systematic study of non-verbal communication as a field in its own right had begun. Birdwhistell maintains that verbal communication represents less than 35% of the "social meaning" of a situation while more than 65% is expressed through non-verbal communication (1970:50). Albert Mehrabian stresses even further the importance of non-verbal communication, maintaining that the total emotional impact of a message is composed of a 7% verbal element, a 38% vocal element (pitch, pronunciation, volume, and intonation), and a 55% facial element (1972:182).

It is important, however, not to view non-verbal communication as an isolated phenomenon divorced from the total system of human communication. Non-verbal behavior is interdependent within the context of communication. Although at times it can be viewed as a separate entity (for example, the use of "emblems" such as "V" for victory), it is generally integrally connected with verbal communication serving such different functions as repeating, substituting for, complementing, accenting, and regulating speech

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(Knapp 1980: 11-15). In addition, non-verbal communication expresses, consciously and unconsciously, individual emotions and social attitudes such as likes/dislikes and domination/subordination (Argyle 1975:118-121).

The question inevitably arises as to whether non-verbal communication represents a universal or a cultural phenomenon. Proponents of Darwin and his conclusions in *The Expression of the Emotions in Man and Animals* (1872) would side with the "universalists," and others, such as Birdwhistell, with the "culturalists." (Studies of universality usually deal with facial expressions of emotion.) This article assumes that although the same gestures and body movements may be observed in different cultures, their meaning is highly culturally determined and learned consciously, and unconsciously, as one would learn a spoken language.

Therefore, it is important to stress the relativity of non-verbal behavior: it may have multiple meanings and uses and is not easily reduced to explicit verbal meanings. Non-verbal forms of communication vary highly among different cultures and often within the same culture, being influenced by such factors as sex, ethnic background, age, social class, occupation, rural/urban life-style, contexts such as formal and informal, and individual personality traits.

By introducing the concept of non-verbal cummunication, the instructor can help students avoid the tendency to stereotype on the basis of non-verbal behavior. Wolfgang warns us of the danger of "non-verbal ethnocentrism"; of assuming that our own forms of non-verbal communication are necessarily the "natural" and "correct" ones and that those of other cultures are "unnatural" or "strange" (1979:168). What we should strive for is to view cultures not as superior or inferior but rather as different from our own. Interpreting an overt behavior of an individual of another culture in terms of the values and assumptions of one's own culture often results in dangerous generalizations and judgements about personal and national character. Encouraging an appreciation of cultural diversity can help minimize such superficial value judgements.

Despite the wealth of material that has been written in cross-cultural communication and ESL journals about the theoretical implications of non-verbal communication (its various types, functions and relationships to language, cultural differences vs. universal similarities in non-verbal communication, and the need for the instructor to be aware of his own non-verbal behavior in the classroom), far fewer practical materials have been developed for use in the ESL classroom to help students gain an appreciation of these cultural differences. This article attempts to bridge that gap.

The following exercises deal with three major types of non-verbal communication: (1) kinesics (body movements such as gestures, eye contact, and facial expressions), (2) proxemics (the interpersonal use of space), and (3) haptics (various forms and patterns of touching). Preceding each section of practical exercises in the classroom is a brief review of the general theoretical issues involved with the particular form of non-verbal communication. These summaries can serve as background information for the instructor or can be read aloud to, or read by, the students.

Although these exercises are designed for a multi-cultural ESL class, many can be adapted to EFL and single-cultural classes. Their purpose is to sensitize students to differences in culturally learned patterns of non-verbal behavior and to common misunderstandings that may arise from these differences. A variety of activities is included (such as role-plays, observations, values clarification studies, and verbal/non-verbal scripts), that are associated with particular forms of non-verbal communication but that the instructor can freely apply to any type.

Kinesics

Gestures and Body Movements

Birdwhistell maintains that "just as there are no universal words, no sound complexes, which carry the same meaning the world over, there are no body motions, facial expressions, or gestures which provoke identical responses the world over" (1970:34). Every culture has its own forms of non-verbal expression, which individuals learn to recognize and interpret at a very young age. Different cultures establish different restrictions regarding the appropriate use of certain gestures (when, where, to whom, how, and to what extent). Gestures are thus part of every culture's "silent language," and represent not a *universal natural* expression of ideas and emotions, but a *culturally* learned form of communication.[1]

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[1] See E.T. Hall's *The Silent Language* (1959) for an in-depth study of how non-verbal behavior reflects cultural values, concepts of time and space, and attitudes toward such areas as work, recreation, and learning.

Misconceptions involving gestures may range from being merely humorous and somewhat embarrassing to being confusing and insulting, may lead to serious value judgements, and may even exacerbate international tensions. On the basis of simple gestures, or their absence, we often make profound judgements about personal and national character. Misconceptions often occur when one fails to understand the meaning of non-verbal expressions (either fails to recognize that they are expressive gestures, or misinterprets them according to the accepted patterns within one's own culture).

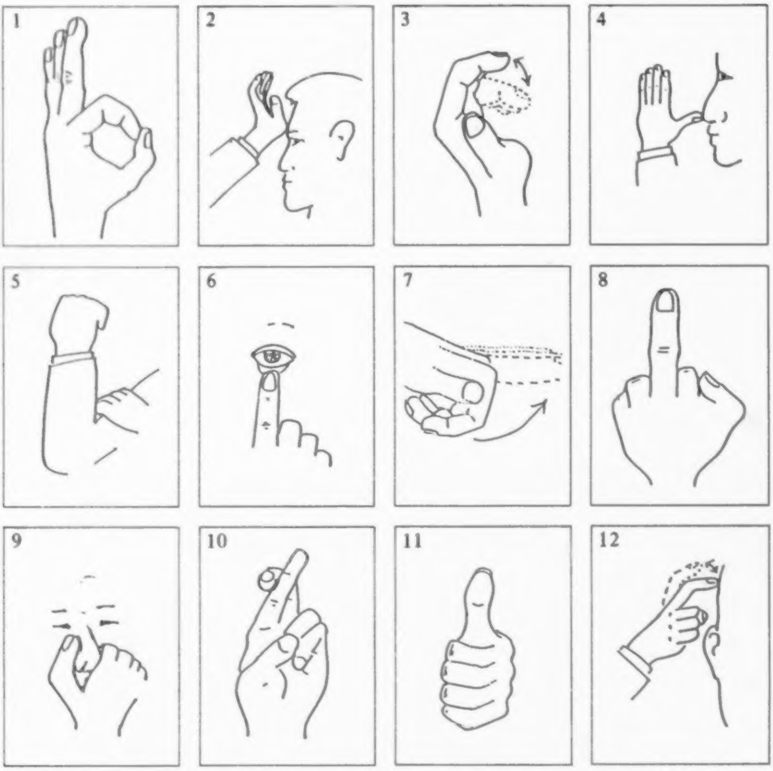
Emblem Quiz

Gestures often represent blends of different emotions and sentiments, but sometimes can have a direct verbal translation. Gestures that have a specific verbal meaning are referred to as emblems. Although some emblems may be universal–such as those for eating and sleeping–most are culture specific. Even if the same gesture has the same basic meaning in two cultures, the contexts in which it can be used will never be exactly the same.

The following activity was inspired by Desmond Morris' research into the origin and distribution of certain emblems (1979:XXVI). Following are twelve common emblems found in Europe and North America. Some of these gestures are also, of course, seen in other parts of the world. The emblems are listed in figure 1. Their common meanings follow.

This activity can serve as a good starting point for a discussion of cultural differences in non-verbal communication. It provides an accessible and entertaining introduction to a topic that will later be examined in more detail, and usually results in lively discussions where students share experiences and demonstrate gestures in their own culture. The emblem quiz can be presented in the following manner: the teacher illustrates the twelve gestures and, after each one, asks the students to jot down the common meaning(s) in their own culture; students then compare their answers and discuss how each of the twelve sentiments might be expressed non-verbally in their culture. (Some of the emblems will not exist in certain cultures, some will have different meanings, and some of the gestures may vary within a single culture.) The teacher can also add other common emblems from various cultures to the list. Emblem #4 can lead to a discussion of gestures that are often restricted to par-

Figure 1: Emblem Quiz*



1) The Finger Ring: O.K., good (Europe, North America), zero (Belgium, France).
2) The Forehead Slap: "That was stupid," "I just remembered" (Europe, North America).
3) Come Hither: "Come here" (many cultures).
4) The Nose Thumb: "You're stupid," an insult, mockery (many cultures).
5) The Forearm Bird: a sexual insult (Europe), a sexual comment (Ireland, England, northern Europe).
6) The Eye Pull: Mockery (Japan), "I am alert," "Be careful" (Europe).
7) The Shoo: "Go away" (Europe, North America), "Come here" (Japan).
8) The Finger Bird: sexual insult (North America).
9) The Nose Plug: to indicate a bad smell (Europe, North America).
10) The Finger Cross: good luck, protection from bad luck (northwest Europe, North America).
11) The Thumbs Up: good (many cultures).
12) The Temple Tap: "He's crazy" (North America, northwest Europe).

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*inspired by Morris, D.P. et al. 1979. *Gestures: their origin and distribution*. New York: Stein and Day.

ticular subgroups or contexts within a culture, for example, those generally only used by children, among friends, members of the same sex, social class, ethnic background, or occupation. Teachers should also be prepared for a brief discussion of non-verbal insults and obscenities. Those who feel uncomfortable dealing with sexual insults can omit the corresponding emblems from the list and substitute others if they wish. However, without going into detail, it usually suffices to say: "This gesture represents an obscenity."

As a follow-up activity in a multi-cultural class, groups of students can come up with their own emblem quizes, which they then present to each other. In this way, they can become familiar with common gestures in different cultures.

Body Movement Demonstrations

In this activity, students demonstrate body movements in their own culture to illustrate various emotions, states, statements, and so on. Some movements may involve simple emblems, but many will be blends of head, facial and body movements, and paralinguistic noises such as sighs and hisses. Many body movements will have a number of different interpretations, especially the expression of emotions. Some items on the list may be easier to express in certain cultures than others, and this observation often leads to interesting discussions of cross-cultural differences.

The function of this activity is to give students a greater sense of the complexity of gestures compared to emblems and it can be used as a game (similar to charades) with the teacher passing around slips of paper on which are written the various items listed below. Individual students act out what is written on the slips of paper and the others try to guess what he or she is trying to express. Several students can be asked to demonstrate the same sentiment and their responses compared, and students can add their own items to the list. They should be encouraged to carefully observe as many forms of non-verbal behavior as possible: gestures, body, head and eye movements, and facial expressions.

Following are some suggestions: hellos/goodbyes, yes/no ("I agree/disagree"), good/bad, "Come here/go away," "Slow down/go faster," "I'm finished," "It's alright," "That's expensive," "I don't know," "Good luck," "Oh, I forgot!," "I'm bored/tired/hot/cold," "It's me," "You talk too much," "I can't hear you," "The meal was delicious," "I'm full," "She's beautiful," "That hurt," "Stay calm," "How could I be so stupid!," "Be quiet!," "What time is it?," "I'm not interested," "He's crazy/he's intelligent," friendship, marriage, "I want to make a phone call," "I feel angry/frustrated/happy/sad/afraid/nervous/surprised/excited/disgusted/ashamed."

Greetings and Partings

The above body movement demonstrations can be further expanded in the following role plays with students taking turns performing in ways appropriate to their culture. Body movements, facial movements, eye contact, touching, space, posture, gait, and the duration of each, should be closely observed.

1. Two good friends who have not seen each other in two years/two weeks/two days greet each other on the street. (Students should role-play various combinations: two women, two men, and a man and a woman. Different ages might be considered, as well as different relationships: two acquaintances, a professor and a student, and so on.)
2. Students show how they would greet the following people who are being introduced to them for the first time (again they should consider two females, two males, and a male and a female): someone younger than they are, someone their own age, someone older, a dignitary, and a large group of people.
3. The groups in exercises 1–2 show how they would say good-bye to one another.
4. For those cultures using handshakes in greetings and partings, the strength, duration, and the number of pumps of the handshake should be observed. Do these differ between men and women (two men shaking hands, two women, or a man and a woman)? Under what circumstances do students shake hands in their culture? Are there cases where it is optional?
5. Students demonstrate different types of social kissing and bowing involved in greetings and partings in their culture.
6. How do students signal in their culture that they wish to end a conversation? (For example, some people might look at their watch, decrease eye contact, start shifting their weight from one foot to another, or gradually move away from the other person.)

Films

The silent viewing of films can be very helpful in encouraging careful observation of non-verbal behavior and in reassuring students that even if they don't fully comprehend what is being said, they will often be able to infer meaning by focusing on non-verbal cues. Students will be amazed at how much they can understand by concentrating on body and facial movements, posture, gait, use of space, touching, clothing, and so on.

Any film or television program can be used, although a selection with interaction between several people who are using a lot of body movements in easier for the students to comment on. After silently watching the film for about five minutes, students can be asked to summarize the plot, predict what they think will happen next, and discuss any impressions they have or value judgements and inferences they can make based on their observation of characters' non-verbal behavior. Interesting discussions of religious, racial, and character stereotypes often ensue.

Verbal/Non-Verbal Scripts

The following exercise emphasizes that non-verbal behavior does not merely substitute for speech but, equally important, accompanies it (complements, accents, and regulates), gives us information about how verbal messages are to be interpreted, and also expresses emotions and conveys individual and social attitudes.

Take a short verbal script, ideally an interchange between two or more characters, and supply an accompanying "non-verbal script" consisting of possible head, facial, and body movements. The non-verbal script should concentrate on the body movements of the person speaking, but can also include the non-verbal reaction of the persons(s) listening. The class breaks up into small groups and, using the same verbal script, comes up with non-verbal accompaniments. After role-playing the verbal and non-verbal scripts simultaneously (and recording them on audio-video equipment, if possible, for playback), the groups compare their results. It will quickly become apparent that non-verbally, as in speech, there are many different ways to express the same idea. Groups of students can also be given different verbal scripts for which they come up with non-verbal counterparts. They then exchange the non-verbal scripts, and the groups try to write down an appropriate verbal dialogue, which they compare to the original.

Verbal scripts can be taken from literature, ESL texts (asking for directions, for example), or students can write their own. The instructor can also write down a short exchange between several characters in a film (this works especially well with the on-going viewing of a film in class), and students, after composing their own non-verbal scripts, observe the original scene and the relationship between verbal and non-verbal "language."

Role-Plays and Non-Verbal Scripts

Students, either spontaneously or after brief preparation, concentrate on verbally role-playing the following situations while others observe their non-verbal behavior. Spontaneous verbal role-plays stress that non-verbal behavior usually unconsciously accompanies speech and, except in the case of emblems, should not be considered an isolated phenomenon. As a follow-up activity, students can divide into small groups, write verbal scripts based on the situations, and then come up with accompanying non-verbal dialogues as above, both of which they then role-play.

Possible situation for role-pays: 1) a student talking with his or her teacher about a course (The teacher can become involved in this role-play); 2) a sales representative and a customer in a department store; 3) a doctor and a patient; 4) a job interview between a personnel manager and a job applicant; 5) a man and woman meet at a party, introduce themselves, and one asks the other to dance. The man then makes advances towards the woman, who first expresses her disinclinations and then makes inclinations towards him. The same is done for the woman expressing initial interest in the man with his varying reactions; 6) students add their own situations.

Student Observations

Students observe non-verbal behavior in public and report back to the class. They should be aware of head and body movements, facial expressions, posture, gait, touching, and the use of space. Good places for observations are airports, bus and train stations, lines for buses and movies, schools, restaurants, shopping centers, hotel lobbies, and cultural and sports events. Observations work particularly well in an ESL setting where cultural differences become readily apparent, but can also be used with EFL students to get them used to concentrating on non-verbal behavior in general.

An evocative exercise is to have students go to a restaurant and for a short period of time discretely observe a couple or group of people at another table, jot down all of the non-verbal behavior they see, and make inferences about what is being discussed and the personalities of the people involved. Of course, students should be aware of the dangers of jumping to conclusions and that they are not making definitive statements but describing general impressions. (To avoid possible misunderstanding, students should be very careful not to appear to be staring at other people.)

Eye Contact

Eye contact and the meaning attributed to different eye movements can vary greatly from one culture to another. The direction and duration of a gaze, when a gaze turns into a stare, and under what circumstances one establishes or avoids eye contact are all, to a large extent, culturally determined.

Cultures have been traditionally divided into those with sustained and direct eye contact (for example, Arabs, Latin Americans, and Southern Europeans), and those lacking sustained contact (such as Asians, Pakistanis, Northern Europeans, and Northern Americans) (Argyle 1976:27).

Direct eye contact in some cultures may be viewed as a sign of attention, concern, and confidence, whereas in others it may be seen as disrespectful, threatening, dominating, or carry sexual connotations. Avoiding eye contact is viewed by some cultures as a sign of deference and by others as an indication of inattention, disrespect, dishonesty, or insecurity. It is thus extremely important when observing a non-verbal behavior in another culture to realize that it might not carry the same meaning as in one's own culture.

Cultures also differ as to the patterns of eye contact during conversations. For example, when speaking, white middle class Americans tend to avoid eye contact about 60% of the time. However, when they become the listener, they establish eye contact over 80% of the time (Duncan 1977:80). Several studies suggest that Black Americans, on the other hand, show the reverse pattern. When they speak, they tend to establish eye contact more often than when they listen (LaFrance 1976:547–552).

Observations

Students observe people in public places, concentrate on eye behavior, and report back to the class. They can, for example, watch two people having a conversation and note how eye contact varies according to changing roles as the speaker or listener. Where do the individuals tend to focus their gaze during conversations: on the other person's eyes or somewhere else? Students can also observe patterns of eye contact between men and women at a bar or party.

Breaking the Rules

Students might judiciously experiment with eye contact, for example, in public places such as on buses and in elevators. How long can they establish eye contact with another person before either of them feels uncomfortable and looks away? What is the other person's reaction and the student's own feelings as he or she increases and decreases eye contact during a conversation? (Students should be very careful not to offend other people and discontinue the activity if they feel they are doing so.)

Discussions

As a class, students discuss patterns of eye contact in their cultures. They should particularly consider (1) the appropriate direction and duration of gaze in public and private situations, (2) what constitutes "staring," and what it might mean in different contexts (does it, for example, have hostile or sexual connotations?) and, (3) patterns of eye contact during conversations (between two women, two men, a man and a woman of different ages and with varying degrees of familiarity)

Verbal Role-Plays

Students from the same cultures and then from different cultures perform the following role-plays while the observers concentrate on eye behavior. The participants can discuss their feelings during the role-plays, for instance if they felt more comfortable when they established or avoided eye contact in different situations. Following are some suggestions:

1. Greetings and farewells: students set up role-plays with people of different ages, sex, social class, and so on.
2. Two people (again with different ages, sex, degrees of familiarity and status) approach each other on the sidewalk. What are their patterns of eye conduct? Americans, for example, tend to "eye" each other until they are about eight feet apart at which point they cast down their eyes (Goffman 1963:84). Are there other patterns in other cultures? Students should

especially consider common patterns between two men, two women, and a man and a woman.

3. A conversation: students observe patterns of eye behavior of the speaker and listener.
4. Reproving: a teacher scolds a child at school for not bringing in his or her homework; a boss reprimands an employee for failing to fulfill his or her responsibilities.

Haptics

Touching patterns differ in kind, amount, and duration within and across cultures. For example, many cultures touch a great deal during greetings, partings, and conversation, whereas others touch very little or not at all. Such peoples as Arabs, Latin Americans, and Southern Europeans are traditionally considered "contact" (or "high-contact") cultures, whereas those such as Asians, Indians, Pakistanis, Northern Europeans, and Northern Americans are thought of as "non-contact" (or "low-contact") groups (Knapp 1980:82–83). (High-contact cultures usually, but not always, coincide with cultures that have sustained eye contact, and low-contact groups usually avoid sustained eye contact.)[2] Again, as with other forms of non-verbal behavior, differences may vary within a particular culture according to such factors as place (public/private), age, sex, ethnicity, social class, and the relationship between the parties involved.

Type of Touch

There are a number of different kinds of bodily contact: patting, slapping, punching, pinching, stroking, shaking, holding, kissing, hugging, kicking, tickling, grooming, and so on. Students can discuss the circumstances under which they might engage in some of these touching behaviors (generally excluding sexual contact), and the parts of the body typically involved. For example, "patting" in many cultures is often done with the hand on someone's head or back, it often expresses congratulations, encouragement, consolation, and is a form of greeting. Students can also add other forms of touching to the list.[3]

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[2] See Watson's controlled studies of non-native college students during conversation where "contact" groups tend to touch each other more than "non-contact" ones, look more directly and for longer periods of time at each other, face each other more directly, interact at a closer distance, and speak in a louder voice (1970).

[3] For a more detailed study of the types of touch and areas generally involved in "Western" culture, see Argyle 1975:287.

Discussions/Observations

1. Students discuss touching patterns between males and males, females and females, and males and females in their cultures. What types of touching are considered "appropriate" in public places? For example, do women hold hands or walk arm-in-arm down the street? Do men? How do men and women express affection in public? Students can also discuss differences in touching patterns between family members: brother/brother, brother/sister, son/mother, son/father, daugher/mother, and daughter/father.
2. Students consider touching in crowds of people, and how they feel about coming into contact with people they don't know. Do they feel uncomfortable being jostled by people in a public place? If they accidentally brush against someone in public do they immediately excuse themselves or generally say nothing at all? Is it considered disrespectful to remain silent if they bump into someone?
3. ESL students observe patterns of touching in public and report back to the class. Do people tend to touch each other a lot during conversations? If so, where? Does this seem to vary according to age or sex?
4. Students can be referred to a study conducted by S. Jourard where he observed the frequency of contact between couples in cafes in four different cities with the following results: (1) San Juan, Puerto Rico: an average of touching 180 times per hour, (2) Paris: 110 times per hour, (3) Gainesville, Florida: two times per hour, and (4) London: no times (1966:221-231). They can then conduct their own study in several cafes or restaurants and compare their results.

Proxemics

Edward Hall uses the word "proxemics" to describe the patterns of spatial relationships between people within a particular culture. He maintains that "proxemic patterns differ. By examining them it is possible to reveal hidden cultural frames that determine the structure of a given people's perceptual world. Perceiving the world differently leads to different definitions of what constitute crowded living, different interpersonal relations, and a different approach to both local and international politics" (1966:164). The use of space is thus culturally determined and reflects many of the attitudes and values of the particular culture.

Hall describes four general distance "zones" for white middle class Americans, each of which is associated with different emotions, activities, and relationships, and has a "close" and a "far" phase depending on the degree of involvement (1966:116–125). Every culture, according to Hall, has its own culturally conditioned "invisible bubbles" of varying size with different rules as to under what circumstances another person can enter into that bubble, and what the consequences are.

The first zone in called the "intimate" zone, from zero to 18 inches, and is seen in whispering between two friends, contact sports, sitting in a bus, and so on. In many cultures the use of the initimate zone often has sexual or hostile connotations. The second zone is the "personal" zone, from 1-1/2 to 4 feet. This is the distance of normal personal interaction among friends, family, and people at a party. The third is the "social" zone, from 4 to 12 feet, the usual distance for impersonal business such as requesting information from a sales clerk. The fourth is the "public" zone, from 12 feet on up, which is the distance of public lectures and plays. (Of course, these patterns may vary in the United States according to age, sex, ethnicity, and so on, but these are the general patterns for middle class "Anglo-Americans.")

All cultures have intimate, personal, social, and public zones, but they can differ greatly from culture to culture and have different associations. What Americans consider the intimate zone might be seen in many parts of the world as the personal zone. For example, two unacquainted adult males in North America would normally feel comfortable conversing at a distance of about 2 to 3 feet, whereas in most South American countries this distance would be reduced to between 1 and 1-1/2 feet (Davis 1973:95). The "high-contact" cultures listed previously usually have small spatial "bubbles," whereas the "low-contact" cultures have larger ones. Different uses of space can result in profound judgements of personal and national character and lead to serious misunderstandings.

Discussions

1. Students compare the four American spatial zones mentioned above with those in their own culture. Do they find an overlapping of zones? Does the American intimate zone, for example, overlap with another culture's personal zone? Are there

differences for male/male, female/female, and male/female interaction?

2. If students were in a public place (for example, in a hotel lobby) where there were a number of free chairs and only a few people, would they sit down near one of the other people? Would they ever take the seat right next to the other person?

Role-Plays

1. Students perform the role-plays in the previous section, "Role-Plays and Non-Verbal Scripts" and also those dealing with greetings and farewells, and observe the use of space.
2. Students role-play conversations between good friends, acquaintances, a student and teacher, someone in a higher or lower social position, etc. and discuss the spatial distance in these interactions.
3. Students are forced into close quarters with a group of other people (for instance, in an elevator or on a crowded bus). How do they hold their body? Where do they look? What do they say?

Observations

1. Students observe the use of space in public places and report back to the class.
2. They can also comment on how people tend to wait in line (for example, for a bus or movie). Are the lines generally compact? Do people usually wait orderly, or is there a lot of moving, jostling, and barging to the front of the line?

Values Clarification Exercises (Case Studies)

A number of short case studies can be used as a final activity to sum up the types of problems that can arise from cultural differences in non-verbal communication. Each highlights a cross-cultural misunderstanding caused by differences in non-verbal communication that are perceived as personal or national idiosyncracies.

In small groups, students discuss the situations, the non-verbal sources of misunderstanding, and identify problems, stereotypes, and value judgments explicit or implicit in the studies. After considering these issues, how they themselves might have responded in the same situation, and whether or not the problem could have been avoided, students summarize their discussion to the rest of the class.

Below are a number of short studies listed according to type of non-verbal behavior. Students can also come up with their own studies.

Gestures

A quarter of a century ago, the Russian Premier, Kruschev, visited the United States on a good-will trip and at one public gathering thrust his arms up into the air, clasping his hands above his head. Many Americans were enraged at his behavior. (Problem: what was intended as a symbol of international goodwill was interpreted by some as an imitation of a boxer having just knocked out his opponent.)

An American professor lecturing in Colombia on language acquisition made reference to the fact that young children of four or five already have an extensive knowledge of their native language. While referring to the children, he emphasized their young age by gesturing with his right arm extended outward and palm facing down, indicating their small size. The audience burst out laughing, and the professor, interpreting their laughter as a sign that they considered his statements simplistic, continued the lecture in an abrupt and defensive manner. (Problem: in some cultures the professor's gesture is only used to indicate the size of animals, not humans.)

Greetings

A number of businessmen and women of different cultures were talking informally with one another before a meeting, waiting for their special guest to arrive, the head of the host country's labor union. As the guest speaker entered the room, most of those who were seated rose to their feet, but four remained seated. One of the people standing in the back of the room whispered to his neighbor, "These foreigners have absolutely no manners!" The neighbor, a man from the same culture, replied, "It's not a question of manners. They don't agree with the man's politics and are trying to make us all aware of that." (Problem: one culture expresses respect by standing up and the other by remaining seated. In addition, one person interprets the act of remaining seated as a lack of manners, while another person of the same culture sees it as a conscious sign of disapproval. This study points out how the same non-verbal behavior can have different meanings within, and across, cultures.)

Facial Expressions

A group of businessmen from two different cultures was conducting contract negotiations concerning a merger of several firms. After the head negotiator from the first group had presented his proposal, he observed several people from the other group nodding their heads and smiling. Although they didn't reach a decision that day, the negotiator from the first group felt confident from the visual cues that they were very close to an agreement. A couple of days later he was extremely disappointed to learn that the second group had decided to look elsewhere for a business partner. He thought to himself, "Those people are incredibly deceptive. They lead you to believe you're close to an agreement, and then they stick the knife in your back!" (Problem: the leader of the first group interprets the head nodding and smiling as a sign of agreement. The second group is merely trying to be polite and acknowledging the validity of the first group's proposal and not necessarily their approval. They are non-verbally saying something like, "That's an interesting point you're making.")

Two American women in their early twenties were travelling together through South America. As they were walking through the center of one town, they passed several men who looked at them and gave them a friendly smile. The women looked back, returned their smiles, and continued on their way. After about five minutes, they noticed that the two men were following them. They walked another five minutes hoping that the men would leave, but they were still behind them. Finally, one of the women turned around and angrily yelled in English, "Get the hell out of here or we'll call the police!" One of the men turned to his friends and said, "These American women are crazy. They ask for something, and when you try to give it to them they turn on you like a pack of wolves!" (Problem: the men interpret the women's smiles as flirting, whereas the women are merely returning what they considered to be a friendly greeting.)

Eye Contact

A white American English teacher in New York was scolding a newly arrived Jamaican student for failing to bring in his homework two times during the first week. The student dropped his head and avoided eye contact with the teacher, who barked at him, "Look me in the eye when I'm talking to you!" The student continued to look at the floor and was sent to the principal's office. (Problem: the teacher expects the student to show respect by establishing eye contact. The student's culture, however, expresses deference by avoiding eye contact.)

A personnel manager was conducting an interview with someone of a different culture for a position in his store. The job applicant tended to avoid eye contact with the manager throughout most of the interview. After the interview, the manager wrote on the application: "Continually looks down, insecure, unreliable. Don't hire." The job applicant told his wife later on that night, "That manager kept staring at me the entire time. He's just as arrogant as all the rest of them!" (Problem: the manager interprets the applicant's avoidance of direct eye contact as a sign of insecurity and unreliability. The applicant avoids eye contact to signal respect and construes the manager's focused gaze as an arrogant stare.)

Haptics

Two college classmates, a man and a woman from different cultures, met each other on the street and started talking about what classes they were taking together. As the man spoke, he occasionally touched the woman on her arms and shoulders. She felt extremely uncomfortable whenever he would touch her and thought to herself, "This guy definitely wants something from me!" (Problem: the male student is used to casually touching another person during conversation, whereas the woman avoids contact and interprets his touches as a sexual overture.)

Two people from different cultures were waiting in line to board a bus, and one accidentally bumped into the other without excusing himself. The person who had been bumped into thought to himself, "What uncivilized people these foreigners are, never saying they're sorry!" (Problem: one person comes from a "high contact" culture where incidental contact is routine and not accompanied by an apology. The other is from a "low contact" culture where one customarily apologizes after accidental contact.)

Proxemics

Two diplomats, an Arab and an American, met at a party after an international conference in Vienna. As they were conversing, both were clearly becoming uncomfortable with the physical distance between them. The American started to slowly back away, and each time he took a step backwards, the Arab would take a step forward. The American thought to himself, "Why doesn't he give me a little breathing room? These Arabs can be so pushy!" The Arab was meanwhile thinking to himself, "A typical American, cold and aloof like all the rest!" (Problem: the two diplomats have different personal spatial zones. The American is used to conversing at a greater distance than the Arab and interprets his attempts to lessen the distance as aggressiveness. The Arab, meanwhile, sees the American's moving away as a sign of unsociability.)

A female English teacher in her early thirties had a twenty-five year old male student from another culture who was making her feel extremely uneasy. He would often come up to her after class and ask several questions about grammatical points he didn't understand. What concerned the teacher was that whenever the man addressed her, he would come up to within about a foot and a half of her. She assumed that he had something other than grammar on his mind. (Problem: the man is used to conversing at a closer distance than the woman. She interprets his closeness as a sexual advance.)

Conclusion

The primary aim of the previous materials is to sensitize students to cultural differences in non-verbal communication. Cross-cultural understanding requires an awareness of culturally determined values, assumptions, and perceptions, many of which are reflected in non-verbal behavior. Interpreting a non-verbal action of an individual of another culture in terms of the patterns within one's own culture, often results in stereotyping and misunderstanding. As Aaron Wolfgang reminds us, "When we become aware of how loud and powerful non-verbal language can be in its silence in communicating our attitudes towards others, our likes and dislikes, our feelings, and make an attempt to understand its social and cultural implications, then we have the seeds for improving and humanizing intercultural communication" (1979:172).

The real non-verbal barriers to cross-cultural communication are not usually the overt behaviors that may radically differ between two cultures (such as greetings and partings) but the more subtle differences (for instance, the use of space and eye contact) which often lead us into making superficial judgements about personal and national character. Encouraging a consciousness of cultural differences can help prevent such hasty generalizations.

Actions indeed often speak louder than words. We as language teachers should thus help our students develop not only an awareness of verbal patterns of communication, but of non-verbal patterns as well. Incorporating the study of non-verbal communication in the classroom can foster an appreciation of cultural diversity and provide an engaging forum for sharing experiences.

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Developing Basic Conversational Management Skills

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Introduction

A frequent problem of non-native English speakers is the inability to make small talk: that is, to participate in a conversation on a general subject which, in a sense, one is obliged to prolong. When speaking with fluent speakers, language learners often do not know how to respond or interact in general conversations concerning everyday topics such as weather, the work day, hobbies, personal interests, and so on. As minor as this sometimes seems, it is a major problem. Although small talk may seem somewhat artificial because it is not propelled forward through sheer interest and enthusiasm, it is important as it lays the groundwork for further conversation and relationships to develop. It is a kind of conversation which one is likely to be engaged in when dealing with business associates or new acquaintences. In this context, it can be extremely important; men and women often have to make small talk over lunch, at the office, on the golf course, or at parties. Indeed, in a study of Japanese employees of NEC Corporation in the United States, many conversation-related problems were cited:

> Some employees admitted that they consciously avoided meeting customers because they didn't know what to say in social situations. An American manager, reflecting this fact, complained that the Japanese tended to isolate themselves in their own community too much, and avoided socializing with Americans.
>
> (Hough 1980:6)

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> Numerous Americans said that Japanese employees should be taught to ask for clarification when they don't understand. They also said that the Japanese use of the English word "yes" constantly caused problems. (Hough 1980:8)

Student interaction both inside and outside of the classroom reinforces these observations. Teachers often complain that students are not "discussing" enough, or are not asking for help when they do not understand something. In listening to student conversations, we can isolate these and several other major problems:

1. Topic–Students do not know which topics are potentially too personal for some people. They do not know which topics native speakers usually select for "small talk."
2. Asking for clarification–When students do not understand, they often do nothing.
3. Balance–Some students do not talk at all; others dominate the conversation.
4. Interrogation vs. conversation–Conversations tend to become a series of questions and short answers.
5. Silence–Pauses in a conversation tend to be uncomfortably long.
6. Showing interest and sympathy–Students have little idea how to show that they are paying attention in order to encourage the speaker to continue.

How then can we help remedy these problems? It seems obvious that foreign language students should have some help in how to effectively participate in a general conversation–how to make small talk. This article will look at these problems and then propose some classroom exercises which will help make students aware of the problems, monitor themselves in similar situations, and give them practice interacting.

The exercises can be divided into three stages. The first stage is designed to simply bring the aforementioned problems to the attention of the students. This involves analyses of sample conversations and student interviews of other teachers. The second stage is a series of exercises designed to develop each of the necessary skills. The third stage integrates the previously-introduced language into a more spontaneous situation.

Stage One: Making Students Aware of the Problem

The importance of an ability to converse or a wide variety of subjects should be introduced as quickly as possible in order to leave adequate time for practice. The first exercise consists of a series of questions which might be asked in an introductory conversation (see appendix–student hand out #1). Various questions which a wide range of native speakers find either too personal or entirely appropriate should be used; students should be able to see the difference between examples of both good and bad personal questions. For example, question D on the handout (Are Canadians generally tall people?) is included because of the stream of comments about a teacher from Vancouver who was somewhere over 6′6″ tall. This points out that seemingly innocent questions such as, "How tall are you?" may be acceptable to some people, but may be considered impolite to others–thus the necessity for having a number of opinions about what constitutes a personal question. The general procedure is as follows:

1. Explain to the students that the purpose of the exercise is to make them aware that some topics sometimes may be considered too sensitive or too personal. This often has to do with the manner in which the question is phrased. The teacher must emphasize that the students are not being asked to answer the questions, but are being aked to decide how appropriate these questions are for the type of conversations they will be having in English. Once the exercise begins, the teacher should circulate among the students in order to check that they have understood. If they have not, a gentle reminder of the necessity of asking for clarification is in order.

2. Divide the students into pairs or triads and have them go through all the questions one by one and try to decide whether they are polite or impolite. Often students will offer conditions for politeness. They may say, for example, that if a man is asking another man this question, it is polite. This sort of contextual commentary should be encouraged, but the teacher should not give his or her own opinion. A time limit should be set for this exercise; do not let it go too long.

3. Go through the questions with the students and elicit their opinions. Differences of opinion should be noted for future reference.

4. Ask the students to talk to at least one other native speaker before the next class. In an intensive program, this is a minor problem because of the large amount of contact students and

teachers have. In other situations, the cooperation of the staff may be required before any interviews. The teacher should provide the students with a conversational opener, such as, "We were talking in our class about topics for conversation and I was wondering what you thought." The students should not conduct this as a formal interview; they should not bring a sheet of paper with their questions. They should informally discuss appropriate and inappropriate topics, what to do when asked a question which they consider personal, and which topics are very good ones for general conversation. The teacher should keep in mind that this is not an easy task for many basic students and that some will come back empty-handed. The information received should be shared with the class. An alternative is to have another teacher come to the class and have a group discussion.

5. The last step is for the teacher to help the students express what they discovered from the other teachers and to give his or her own opinion.

Generally, this exercise does not take up much class time and it helps alleviate students' difficulty selecting appropriate topics for conversation.

The next exercise is designed to give students an opportunity to look at two semi-authentic conversations and compare them (see appendix–student handout #2). These 'semi-authentic' conversations are based upon actual conversations; they were constructed to focus on specific aspects of conversation. The procedure is as follows:

1. Explain that the purpose of this exercise is to make students aware of certain conventions of conversation in English.

2. Divide the students into pairs and give them the two conversations. Allow the students to ask questions about anything that they do not understand. If they have trouble asking for clarification, write several sample sentences on the board, such as "What does __________ mean?"

3. Have them take one part (A or B) and go through the conversations. They should not read the conversations, but rather look at the sentences and then say them while looking at their partner (not at the page). Usually several attempts are necessary before they can do it smoothly. When they are doing fairly well, have them switch roles. (This is a good time to discuss the importance of eye contact.)

4. Ask the students which conversation is better, #1 or #2. Have them compare the two in as much detail as possible. If this is very difficult for the students, the teacher should help them express their ideas by restating and asking if that is what was meant. The teacher should be able to elicit the following:

Conversation 1:

1) Speaker A asks only yes-no questions. This makes it easy for B to give short answers.
2) Speaker B says only yes or no; no details are given. This indicates a lack of balance.
3) Speaker B is silent for a long time at one point, which can often cause uneasiness among westerners.
4) No clarification is asked for when something is not understood.

Conversation 2:

1) Speaker A asks open questions, that is, questions which allow a choice of answers. These include "why" and some "how" questions.
2) Speaker A uses listener expressions, such as "uh-huh," to indicate that he or she is following the conversation and is still interested.
3) Speaker A also asks follow-up questions, such as "What don't you like about America?," to keep the conversation going. In addition, speaker A restates the question, "What's it like?," when speaker B does not understand.
4) Speaker B asks for clarification. He or she also uses such expressions as "Well" and "Let me see" to indicate that the question has been understood but that she or he needs time to reply. By doing this, he or she avoids an awkward silence.
5) Speaker B's answers in #2 are more complete, so that the amount of speech is more balanced between A and B.

After the students have discovered this information, write it down in the form of "Guidelines for Successful Conversation" on a large piece of paper and hang it on the classroom wall. This will make it wasy for the teacher to remind the students when they do not follow them. During a discussion, the teacher can simply point to the problem area without an oral interruption. The guidelines should be similar to the following:

1. If you don't understand something, ask for clarification or repetition.

2. Try to have a balanced conversation. Everyone should contribute to the discussion. Nobody should talk all of the time.
3. Give complete answers to questions. Add as much information as possible.
4. Avoid silence. More than three or four seconds of silence makes many native speakers uncomfortable.
5. Give some signal that you are following the conversation (Uh-huh).
6. If you need time to think of an answer to a question, say something that indicates that you understood the question but need time (Let me see).

Stage Two: Exercises for Specific Skills
Listener expressions:

One of the most important ways in which we encourage people to keep talking is to show interest in what they are saying by using short expressions which do not interrupt the flow of conversation (see appendix–student handout #3). A detailed description of exactly where to put these expressions in the conversation is beyond the scope of this article; generally however, between sentences is the most obvious place. Moreover, speakers often pause to take a breath or to check whether the listener is indeed listening. This is the student's opportunity to use listener expressions. The general procedure for this exercise is as follows:

1. Explain that the purpose of the exercise is to introduce the students to ways of showing that they are interested in the conversation in order to encourage the speaker to continue.

2. Give the students the handout entitled "Listener Expressions" (see appendix–student handout #3) and go over it in class explaining anything that they do not understand. This handout includes a list of requests for clarification. Teachers should lose no opportunity to remind students that they are responsible for their own understanding.

As soon as the students have gone through the handout and understand the phrases, the teacher should give the students a chance to practise them. A written exercise that allows the students time to discuss and examine the list is a good way to start. This is generally a conversation where the listener's comments are left blank. The students must fill in the B lines only with expressions from the list. A sample is given below:

PRACTICE FOR LISTENER EXPRESSIONS

Fill in the blanks with expressions from your list.

A: I took my dog to the veterinarian yesterday.
B:
A: He didn't want to go.
B:
A: He weighs about 45 kilograms.
B:
A: When I tried to put him into the car, he turned around and bit me.
B:
A: I struggled with him for a while and finally got him to the veterinarian.
B:
A: Then, I went to the hospital.
B:
A: The bills totalled $315 for the vet and my doctor.
B:

Note that the conversation basically requires sympathetic responses. Students should also be given practice conversations which require responses to happy and neutral situations.

After two or three written exercises, the students should be ready for a verbal exercise. One exercise involves three or four students sitting in a group. The "A" student reads a statement from a sample conversation; "B" gives an appropriate response. A reads the next statement; C gives an appropriate response. A reads one more statement; D gives an appropriate response. B then begins the next section of the conversation; C gives an appropriate response. This continues until the exercise is finished. The students will have some problems at first since there will be unfamiliar vocabulary in the story. They should be allowed to practise it until everything goes smoothly. In order to avoid problems, make sure that the students choose their responses only from the list of listener expressions. After the students have finished exercises aimed at introducing these expressions, they should consistently be reminded to use them. The teacher should monitor their use and tell them how they are doing. Once again, the exercise can be modified to elicit different types of listener responses. Following is an example:

LISTENER CUES: MORE PRACTICE

Read the following lines. Wait for responses between lines.

A: I had a great weekend!
B: (B can say, for example, "Really?")
A: I went up to the mountains on Saturday.
C:
A: I had a wonderful view.
D:
B: I didn't have a very good weekend.
A:
B: I had to go to the office on Saturday.
C:
B: The boss made me work until seven o'clock at night.
D:

Giving complete answers

One common problem noted in the conversation analysis exercise was the lack of complete answers. This is partly due to grammar problems and a lack of vocabulary, but it is also something which can be improved through practise. A simple elaboration exercise reminds the students of the necessity of giving more than just a minimum response. Below are five statements. The students' task is to expand the information to make the sentence more interesting. They should read them one at a time and take about the minute to visualize the scene in their minds. They should then write down the details that they see.

1. I went to Miami for my vacation. The weather was nice. (Example: It was warm, but not hot. It only rained once for a short time. The nights were cool.)
2. Beethoven is my favorite composer. (Students' opinions always cry out for reasons.)
3. It was a beautiful house.
4. I don't like my job.
5. I'm going to New York on Thursday.

Asking open questions

A great deal of improvement can be made in the area of keeping a conversation going simply by realizing that, as far as conversations are concerned, there are only two types of questions: closed and open. Closed questions have only one possible answer and therefore leave little room for expansion. An example is, "How old are you".

Open questions, however, require the listener to give a more detailed answer. They often involve opinions and reasons for opinions. Native speakers often use an open question as a follow-up to a closed question. For example: "Have you ever been to England?" or "How did you like it?" Just having the students provide examples of each type and showing them how open questions prolong any discussion is useful. (For detailed exercises concerning this skill, see Chan and Underdal 1986.)

Stage Three: Consolidation Exercises

Once the importance of managing a conversation has been introduced and specific exercises have been given, students need an opportunity to practise integrating all these skills in a more open-ended exercise. Such an exercise provides a better opportunity to point out the importance of conversational balance and avoiding long silences than the controlled exercises focusing on only one skill. An exercise using cuisinaire rods to monitor the number of turns each student takes can be used. The primary advantage of this conversation game over others is that the students must work together against the teacher in order to win instead of against each other: to be successful, they need to work together for a balanced conversation. This simulates the social aspect of a real conversation, which is friendly rather than competitive.

In the initial conversation, a definite topic should be decided upon; this narrows the range of knowledge necessary. The teacher or the students choose a topic such as food, hobbies, or sports. In the following conversation, music is the topic. Because many students need vocabulary expansion, this first exercise is simply one in which they examine, as homework, a series of adjectives and circle all that could be used to describe music (see appendix–student handout #4). This guarantees that the students will be exposed to at least a small stock of descriptive terms for music. The teacher can go over this briefly in class.

The second phase of preparation is to give the students practise giving opinions and to expand their knowledge of words which classify different types of music. The students are given a list of ten categories of music, such as jazz and reggae. They then listen to a tape which has the first thirty seconds of ten pieces of music which correspond to the ten categories. They rate each piece from one (like very much) to five (don't like at all). After rating, they discuss their opinions in pairs or small groups. Emphasize that the students should try to use the adjectives from the previous exercise to describe the pieces and make sure that the students provide adequate reasons why they like or dislike a particular piece.

The actual game can be a bit complicated for the students, so it is necessary to explain it slowly and clearly beforehand. The students will probably require a practise round or two before they completely understand what they are supposed to do. The procedure is as follows:

1. Explain that the purpose of the game is for everyone to equally participate in a conversation, to avoid silence, and to practise everything that they have learned about managing conversations.

2. Draw two columns on the blackboard; label them 'teacher' and 'class.' Tell the students that if they have a successful conversation, they will get one point. If they do not, the teacher will get one point.

3. Divide the students into groups of six or seven. Put each group in a circle sitting around a table. Appoint a timekeeper for each group. Make sure he or she has a watch. If there is only one group, the teacher is the timekeeper.

4. Hand out seven rods to each student. If possible, the seven rods should be the same color so that it is easy to tell which rods belong to whom.

5. Tell the students that each rod is a turn in the conversation. Whether they simply say "Uh-huh" or speak for a long time, their turn is still one rod. Each student will, therefore, speak seven times in this conversation.

6. Tell the students that every time someone finishes a turn, that person must put one rod in the middle of the table. When a student has no more rods, that student must be silent. This will mean that the more talkative students will have to allow the more reticent ones to speak.

7. When the conversation is finished, all students must have used up all of their rods. If one student has not been talking as much as the rest of the group and still has two or more rods, the group loses and the teacher gets one point. In order to avoid that, the students should be advised to look around to see who has the most rods. The other students should then direct questions to that person, for example, "What do you think, Mr. or Ms. __________?"

8. Explain to the students that the timekeeper is going to time the length of silence between sentences. If there is more than a four-second period of silence at any time in the conversation, the students lose that round of the conversation and the teacher gets one point. The conversation will start over.

9. Write a sample opening line on the blackboard, such as "What kind of music do you like?" Tell the students that the timekeeper will begin the conversation with this sentence. After that, one of the students must continue the conversation.

10. The teacher should try very hard to get the students to win. Bend the rules if they are doing well. Remember to change timekeepers between rounds so that everyone has a chance to participate. After each round, analyze their problems and remind the students about the importance of giving reasons and using listener expressions.

Following is a sample game:

Teacher: What kind of music do you like?
Student A: I really like jazz. (places rod in middle of table)
Student A: I really like jazz. (places rod in middle of table)
Student B: I really like classical. (places rod in middle of table)
Student C: I used to play the violin. (places rod)

(*Silence for 5 seconds*)

Teacher: All right, the silence was too long. I get one point. We'll begin again, but first I need to remind you of some things about conversations. First, Student A and B are both answering my question. However, once Student A has answered my question, Student B should focus on Student A's response, "I really like jazz," to expand the conversation. For example, you could ask student A why he likes jazz, or what kind of jazz music does he like best. Second, Student B could agree or disagree with Student A's statement and give reasons for his opinion. This provides more information. You must give reasons for your opinions so that the others have something to discuss. Try to give fairly long comments. Let's try again. What kind of music do you like?
Student D: I like jazz because it's always different. (places rod)
Student B: I don't really like jazz because it's too crazy. I love classical. It's very dramatic, especially Beethoven. (places rod)

(*Game continues.*)

If the students grow bored with the topic as the game continues, change to a topic of their choice. Sports, hobbies, and food are good topics for small talk.

Generally, I feel that this activity focuses on what a conversation is and is not. Dissect each conversation at the end and tell the students exactly how natural it seemed. If there were problems, let them know. Be sure, however, to also let them know what they did well.

A second exercise that is very good for presenting a whole conversation to a group of students is a sentence scramble. It has the added advantage of being extremely simple to do. The most difficult part for the teacher is finding a suitable conversation. If the lesson is listener expressions, for example, it may take some time to find a sample conversation with enough of them. After the conversation has been chosen, the teacher simply types up the conversation and supplies each pair or group of students with a copy. The teacher cuts the page into sentence strips and mixes the sentences up. The students reconstruct the conversation using their knowledge of conversation management. The teacher should make sure, however, that the sentences the students are putting together do not come from the same page or the students will reconstruct the conversation by fitting them together like a jigsaw puzzle. It works very well with movies such as *The Graduate* or *Foul Play* which contain episodes with small talk.

Conclusion

Almost any discussion activity can be used to give the students a chance to work on conversation management skills and can serve as an opportunity for the teacher to diagnose the students' abilities. Simulations are very helpful since the teacher has the opportunity to sit back and take note of problems. If a video or movie is used in class, an analysis of the dialogue from this perspective adds another dimension to study. If possible, the students should be given the chance to talk with other teachers or even fluent speakers from outside the school. Interview assignments similar to the personal questions exercise are sometimes helpful.

It should be remembered, however, that the exercises presented so far are rather limited in scope. It is generally the case that when presented with a more difficult or more open-ended problem such as a simulation, the students' use of these conversational skills decreases. The students may be focusing so much on the problem at hand that they forget to ask for clarification or to use listener expressions. This is understandable, but should be commented on at the end of the exercise.

There are several areas which I have not dealt with. These include openings, closings, turn-taking, interrupting, changing the topic, and returning to a previous topic. In my bibliography, I have given references to all sources related to conversation management which I have found helpful. They are mainly general information sources which are non-technical or descriptions of specific exercises with detailed instructions for classroom use. Although this is a very important area of ESL, it has been somewhat neglected. The transition from the theoretical description of conversation to practical guides for teachers has just begun. I hope that it will continue.

APPENDIX

STUDENT HANDOUT #1

POLITE AND IMPOLITE TOPICS FOR DINNER CONVERSATION

At our school, many people will be asking you questions. Some of these may seem to be too personal (rude). READ THE QUESTIONS BELOW AND DECIDE WHETHER THEY ARE OK OR IMPOLITE. If the situation is important, discuss this also. For example, you may feel that the sex or age of the speakers is important. When you finish, answer the questions below.

POLITE IMPOLITE

A. RELIGION
   1. Do you believe in God?
   2. Are Americans very religious people?
B. SPORTS
   1. Do you play tennis?
   2. How do you think the Yomiuri Giants will do this year?
C. MARITAL STATUS
   1. Are you married?
   2. Are there a lot of divorces in America?
D. PERSONAL STATISTICS
   1. How much do you weigh?
   2. Are Canadians generally tall people?

E. POLITICS
  1. Do you support Nakasone?
  2. Is Nakasone popular?

F. SEX
  1. What do you think of American women?
  2. Do Japanese women usually work after marriage?

ADDITIONAL QUESTIONS

1. When someone asks you a question which you feel is too personal, what should you say?
2. Write down two topics that you think are good for general conversation with someone you've just met.

STUDENT HANDOUT #2

WHICH CONVERSATION IS BETTER?

Conversation #1

A: Are you from Japan?
B: Yes.
A: Do you like America?
B: Yes.
A: Have you been to New York yet?
B: . . . . (long silence)
A: Did you go to the Statue of Liberty?
B: Yes.
A: Will you go back to America?
B: No.
A: Goodbye.
B: Goodbye.

Conversation #2

A: Are you from Japan?
B: Yes. I'm from Odawara. That's about one hour southwest of Tokyo by car.
A: Oh, really. I've never been to Odawara. What's it like?
B: I'm sorry. Could you repeat that?
A: Could you tell me about Odawara?
B: Well . . . It's a beautiful city because there are many mountains and it's on Sagami Bay.
A: Uh-huh.
B: And there's a nice castle there.

A: It sounds very nice. How do you like America?

B: I think that it's very interesting. It's very different from Japan.

A: How is it different from Japan?

B: Hmmmm, well, for one thing, there are fewer people.

A: Uh-huh.

B: In Japan there isn't much flat land.

A: Really?

B: When I go outside of the cities here, I'm very surprised.

A: I know what you mean.

B: Also, the houses are bigger.

A: What don't you like about America?

B: Let me see. That's a difficult question. I worry about crime.

A: Yeah, me too.

B: Especially when I'm alone on the streets at night. Also, sometimes people seem impolite.

A: Yeah, I sometimes worry about my wife being out alone at night.

B: I feel the same way sometimes. Well, excuse me, I want to get another drink. It was nice talking to you.

STUDENT HANDOUT #3

LISTENER EXPRESSIONS

Showing interest or attention

I see.
Uh-huh.
(Head nodding)
Yeah.
Really.
Ummm.
No kidding.
Asking questions. (How long were you there? Did you enjoy it?)

Showing Surprise

Really?
Oh, wow!
Fantastic!
Oh, my God!
Incredible!
I can't believe it!
Did he/she really!
Are you kidding?

Showing sympathy
Oh, that's too bad.
I'm sorry to hear that.
That's terrible.
That must have been difficult.
That must have been terrible.
How sad!

Showing That You Are Happy for the Speaker
That's wonderful!
That's fantastic!
Sounds great!
That must have been fun!
That must have been fantastic!
That must be wonderful!

Clarification
Could you repeat that?
What does ____________ mean?
Excuse me, could you speak more slowly?
How do you spell ____________?
I'm sorry, but I didn't catch that.
Pardon me, but I didn't understand that.
Could you explain that?
Could you be more specific?
Could you give me an example of that?

What to Say While You're Thinking of a Reply
Hmmmmm . . .
Well . . .
Let me see.
Let me think.
That's a difficult question.

STUDENT HANDOUT #4

CONVERSATION PREPARATION

You are going to have a conversation about music. As preparation, look at the following list of words and decide which words could be used to describe music. Circle all appropriate words.

lovely
loud
fast
realistic
Spanish
sad
classical
complex
romantic
unpopulated
dark
inspiring
blonde
gigantic
sensual
wonderful
boring
modern
simple
quiet
clean
urban
relaxing
soft
slow
lazy
happy
interesting
contemporary
gentle
noisy
dirty
ugly
hard
scientific
exciting
rough
smooth
depressing
dramatic
primitive
traditional
bright
crowded

MUSIC SAMPLES

Listen to the following ten selections and rate them from one to five.

1 = I like it very much.
2 = I like it.
3 = It's OK.
4 = I don't really like it.
5 = I don't like it at all.

	1	2	3	4	5
1. Jazz					
2. Classical					
3. Rock					
4. Country					
5. Reggae					
6. Funk					
7. Swing					
8. Disco					
9. Bluegrass					
10. Pop					

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Assessing the Spoken English of Non-Native Trainee Teachers

John B. Curtin

Today, there are more and more non-native speakers teaching English. As home country nationals become more linguistically proficient, there is less need for "foreign experts" to teach. Contemporary language teaching methods make heavy demands on the oral competence of these non-native teachers of English; the current predominance of communicative techniques makes it imperative that the teacher be fluent in the target language and have confidence when speaking it. How good then, should non-native teachers' English be, and how should their spoken English be evaluated? In the past, oral skills were evaluated by using some absolute of theoretically-derived standard often based on native speaker ability. Given the number of non-native teachers, and the problems they often encounter in learning English, this may not be the best way.

This article will briefly discuss some of the common problems in oral testing, consider some of the problems inherent in learning English outside of an English-speaking country, and describe a way of assessing oral competency that expresses a realistic attitude about what should be expected of the teacher. This is done by comparing a teacher's oral proficiency with a known standard or norm: that of a typical practising teacher.

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General Problems

All language testing is difficult; perhaps the testing of oral competence is the most problematic. Some of the problems inherent in oral testing are:

The size of the sample

If the accuracy of a result is in proportion to the size of the sample, how much time must be allowed for the oral test in order for it to constitute a valid sample? How long does a candidate need to provide an adequate sample of what he or she can do with the spoken word? As language is intrinsically unpredictable and contains the elements of an astronomical number of combinations and permutations, this question appears to be unanswerable except, perhaps, by saying, "As long as possible." Thus, only the practical exigencies of the time available for testing can set the limits, and these will always be too narrow.

The affective and subjective problems of interviewing

Interviews consist of the interaction of two or more people. It has to be admitted, therefore, that interviews are likely to be influenced by such factors as age, sex, character, charisma, degree of relaxation, and topics chosen or imposed–to mention only a few of the typical characteristics of interview which can prejudice or even invalidate assessment. If, however, two interviewers can first make individual assessments and then compare, discuss, negotiate, and finally come to an agreement on the marks awarded, the subjective element can probably be reduced in importance.

This is even more desirable when an interviewer already knows the candidate and is unconsciously biased, for or against. Paradoxically, when there are two interviewers present, it may be desirable for one of them to have some personal knowledge of the candidate in order to be able to intercede in cases where a sole interviewer, meeting the candidate for the first time and under examination conditions, might get a false impression. The important thing is that there should be more than one examiner present. Unfortunately, the increased pressure which this places on the candidate can also be prejudicial. One is therefore left in the position of having to weigh disadvantages.

The method of grading

This is perhaps the most intractable problem in the field of oral testing. In certain circumstances, however, it may be possible to solve it—or at least partly overcome it—by adopting a 'relativist' approach: that is, by comparing a candidate's English with that of a practising teacher. Another partial solution to the problem may lie in the grading of a number of subskills rather than simply awarding a global mark. Nevertheless, the adoption of a system of subskills opens yet another debate: which subskills should be graded; how many subskills should be chosen; and how much should each subskill be weighted?

An Approach to the Problems of Oral Testing in Brazil

Background

A private language-teaching organisation in Rio de Janeiro (Curso Oxford) has adopted the method of oral testing which follows; it has now been in operation for three semesters. The organisation is one of the oldest in Rio and has seven branches scattered throughout the large, growing city. It provides courses for both children and adults—from beginner to preparation courses for the University of Oxford's preliminary and higher examinations in English as a Foreign Language (for which it is a licensed examination centre). Some ten thousand students follow its normal courses and some twenty to thirty trainee teachers complete the two-year cycle of teacher training: four one-semester courses in English Literature, English and American Drama, Educational Psychology, and Teacher Training. These four courses are preceded by a Study Skills course; this includes an aural comprehension component of an innovative nature, which is used to train future teachers to understand spoken E.A.P. (English of Academic Purposes). The complete Study Skills course has been designed to prepare the students for the rigours of the two years of teacher training, and is one semester long. It should be emphasised that the language of instruction throughout the teacher training course is always English.

Problems faced by the non-native teacher of English in Rio de Janeiro

Perhaps one of the biggest problems in learning English in this situation is the lack of native models; students often do not have the opportunity to listen to a native speaker. Although they may have studied at one of many private institutions or within the state system, they will be lucky if they have heard a native American or

British speaker speak in person; they will be extremely fortunate if they have been taught by a competent teacher who is also a native speaker. Government policy over recent years has not encouraged organisations to contract native speakers to teach at the secondary or university level. Native speakers are not likely to be paid salaries which they would consider acceptable unless, of course, they are being subsidised. For lucrative reasons, therefore, most of the native British or American teachers are to be found teaching business executives and state enterprise employees in 'in-house' situations.

The trainees will have heard tapes; they will also have heard non-standard English spoken by their teachers. Chances are that they will have heard much more of the latter than the former. In the course of their passage through a private language-teaching organisation, they may have heard half a dozen non-native teachers' voices, each with a different way of speaking English. As a result, the trainees may well have been exposed to a pronunciation of the past tenses of regular verbs in which all the endings are pronounced as a separate syllable /ed/. They may have accepted the Brazilianised version of English words as standard pronunciation, for example, /ōliwūdi/ for 'Hollywood' and /fūtibōl/ for 'football.' Unless they have been assiduous in their attendance at the cinema when subtitled rather than dubbed films are being shown, or they can afford video cassette-players, they will have no standard against which to measure the teacher-English to which they have been exposed. A privileged few will have spent a few weeks or even months in the United Kingdom or the United States. The vast majority will not have had such an opportunity.

The trainees' progress is also often hampered by their inability to complete the components of the teacher-training course in the right sequence without interruption. This may be the result of concurrently completing courses at a university or a technical college, or, very often, of the need to earn a living while studying. It should also be mentioned that many trainees intend to become teachers in order to add a second string to their bow. They may be undergraduate engineers or medical students who hope to be able to teach English part-time in order to support themselves, and possibly their families, as they finish their university studies or begin their professional careers. As in so many third world countries, aspiring professionals have to face the fact that they may need two or more different jobs in order to make ends meet.

When they have completed the teacher-training course, they may apply (or be invited) to stay and teach for the organisation; they may enter a pedagogical or Arts degree programme at a university (to which they have an automatic right of entry if they have qualified on the organisation's government-approved training course); or they may register with the Ministry of Education or in another private teaching organisation. It is against this background, then, that both the level of oral competence of the trainees, and how to test it, must be considered.

Testing Criteria

The size of the organisation under consideration means that time limits have to be set for oral assessent. In order to reduce the importance of the final interview, a case could be made for the trainees having their interview marks heavily weighted by the accumulation of marks awarded by their instructors during the four-month course period on a continuous assessment basis. Unfortunately, continuous assessment is an approach which has only recently begun to gain acceptance in Brazil. Trainees, therefore, have to be judged to a considerable extent on the basis of their final interviews.

This is not to say that there is no provision for continuous assessment during their course. Trainees are assessed monthly and the sum of monthly marks, a mark for the content of their final written examination (a lesson plan), and a mark for the quality of their written English are all taken into account in the awarding of the diploma. Nevertheless, a pass/fail oral mark is awarded (although the trainees have the right to be re-examined if they fail, and some return six months or a year later, very often with successful results.

The standardisation of the testing procedure is particularly important as the interviews may be held at any of the seven different branches and with different examiners. It was agreed that a ten-minute interview length be made standard and that the examiners should be allowed five minutes between interviews for discussion and negotiation. (This allowance was found in practise to be all too short).

Interview teams

The instructors very naturally want to interview their own trainees; they feel that their background knowledge of them makes a fairer judgement possible. They feel much more capable of putting their own students at ease during the interview, thereby giving the candidate a chance to perform as well as they possibly can. They accept, however, the need for a second opinion by another assessor present at the interview but have initial concerns about the inhibiting effect of the other assessor on their trainee's performance. A compromise was reached whereby the trainee's instructor, in many cases, conducted the interview and the other assessor was present only as an observer, a 'fly on the wall.' A particular advantage of this system is that the observer is not distracted by his or her own participation in the interview and is thus in a better position to make a dispassionate assessment. By concentrating the mind on the grading of subskills, the instructor is able to reduce affective interference and achieve a fairer and more accurate result. This concentration on specifics helps examiners keep their minds focused on the interview, undistracted by, say, pretty earrings or an attractive baritone voice.

Testing objectives

To define testing objectives, the following statement was devised:

> To see whether the trainees' English was good enough to enable them to take their places in the organisation's classrooms and acquit themselves with dignity, confidence and efficiency as noviciate teachers.

The simplicity of the above statement is deceptive because we must still define how good "good enough" is. Moreover, any experienced Director of Studies knows that a teacher whose English is somewhat defective but who has an instinctive "feel" for teaching will be far more successful in the classroom than the teacher with impeccable English but mistaken pedagogical attitudes. As language teaching is not just instruction–a kind of cut-and-dried, Skinnerian-type stimulus-response activity–we cannot judge a language teacher on technical proficiency alone. Affect and empathy have to be taken into account even if they are not readily quantifiable. Technical proficiency is only part of a language teacher's requirements; sensitivity to people he or she is working with, an intuitive flair for positive, personal interaction, and an ability to *educate* (e(x)–

ducere: "to lead out" or "to draw out")–these are among the less definable and difficult-to-test qualities without which a teacher is incomplete and which can actually weigh more heavily in a teacher's favour than impreccable pronunciation and a mastery of the structure of the language. Unfortunately, these gifts–and gifts they are–may only reveal themselves under actual classroom conditions. Thus, we must think very carefully about how to assess a young teacher whose pronunciation is defective but who demonstrates such precious qualities. True, in the system under consideration here, the teacher can always come back for another test. However, we have to face the fact that it may be extremely difficult for the non-native teacher in countries like Brazil to get enought exposure to the native tongue to enable him or her to reach an acceptable standard of "good pronunciation.

So we come to a major problem: how "good" can we expect non-native teachers of English to be if they have not had the luck or the means to spend some time in the United States or the United Kingdom, that invaluable exposure to the language as it is spoken by native speakers? Ought we to exclude all those who have not been abroad? By doing this, we are saying in effect, "If you are not from a family affluent enough to finance a trip abroad, you are unlikely to be approved as a teacher of English." And, of course, as the gap widens between the have's and the have not's of this world, this problem grows more acute. To sum up, every year more teachers are needed, but how many of them can get that exposure to the target language which is generally required to achieve an acceptable level of oral competence?

In the face of all these difficulties and doubts, it is still necessary to establish some standard. Also, it is necessary to ensure that all examiners apply the same criteria with equal severity or tolerance. It seems best, therefore, for the testing procedure to be based on objectives which fit the practical needs of the teaching organisation, and to work from the assumption, not always true, that teachers have to be tested for their fitness to teach in the same organisation which trained them. What are the practical requirements of the organisation? It was concluded that they were: "*to obtain new teachers who would be at least as good and if possible better than the existing teachers.*" "Existing teachers" means those who have taught for at least a semester. These teachers provide a norm by which the new teachers can be judged. If they are comparable, they pass. If they are a little less than comparable, they can also pass provided the examiners feel that they are likely to improve through practise or they have a "feel" for teaching. This, however, is very difficult to judge. In this way, conditions are established to determine the "pass" candidates and also the marginal candidates who might be expected to improve to "pass" level within about six months.

The principle which emerges from this approach is as follows: the oral English of trainees can be quite accurately compared with that of practising teachers. We know how well the average practising teacher speaks; we hear him or her daily, not only in the Teachers' room (where, unfortunately, not always as much English is spoken as one would like) but also in lesson observation and monitoring procedures in the classroom.

We come now to the practical details of the method of assessment and the different skills to be considered. It is possible to establish various combinations of subskills, which can then be assessed separately. This is not to say that the subskills exist as completely separate aspects of the total oral production: they are, in fact, closely interrelated. The selection of subskills which are itemised in the facsimile assessment form (see figure 1) is the result of several years' experimentation. In their assessment, the examiners have to agree on a mark for each subdivision and base it on its relation to the norm. They then circle the number they have selected. From the sum of these numbers they derive a total mark.

Notes on the theoretical basis of the marking matrix (figure 1)

A. Ability to convey meaning: one could argue forever about the relative importance of the skills (ABCDE). It is, however, possible to agree on the need for a teacher to be immediately and absolutely intelligible. The reasons for the presence or absence of intelligibility are to some extent dissected in BCDEF, but in A, an overall judgement is made.

B. Pronunciation: a blanket term, in this case. Again, it is necessary for a teacher to be able to establish a correct model for the students to imitate. The subdivisions help examiners to consider and balance the various aspects of the problem. The sounds enumerated are among those which tend to present problems for Brazilian-Portuguese speakers of English.

Fig. 1 ORAL ASSESSMENT OF TEACHER TRAINING COURSE CANDIDATES

N.B. The completed sheets are to be returned to COORDINATION as soon as possible, for research and statistical purposes.

Branch: ____________
Class no.: ____________
Candidate's name: ____________
Examiner's name: ____________
Date of test: ____________
Length of interview: ____________

Examiner should circle the appropriate number in each column.

	A	B	C	D	E	F	Possible Total	This candidate's total
	ABILITY TO CONVEY MEANING	PRONUNCIATION (**)	GRAMMATICALITY (***)	CLARITY & PLEASANTNESS OF DELIVERY	LEXIS (****)	AURAL COMPREHENSION		
EXCEPTIONALLY GOOD	22	20	19	16	10	8	95	
CONSIDERABLY BETTER	20	18	17	14	9	7	85	
SOMEWHAT BETTER	18	16	15	12	8	6	75	
THE NORM (*)	17	15	14	11	7	6	70	
SLIGHTLY WORSE	16	14	13	10	7	5	*65	
SOMEWHAT WORSE	14	12	11	8	6	4	55	
CONSIDERABLY WORSE	12	10	9	6	5	3	45	
EXCEPTIONALLY POOR	10	8	7	4	4	2	35	

Students failing will have the right to be re-assessed.

* (PASS) GRAND TOTAL ____

* The Norm: a young, average competent CURSO OXFORD teacher who has already taught for one semester.

** PRONUNCIATION

Subdivisions to be considered

1. Weak forms
2. Contractions
3. Catenation (linking)
4. Rhythm and Stress
5. Certain contrasts :
   /i/iː/ /ə/əː/
   /z/s/ /ð/θ/
   /tʃ/dʒ/ /ʃ/ʒ/

*** GRAMMATICALLY

Subdivisions to be considered

Syntax: Declarative, interrogative, negative and exclamatory sentence forms
Verb tenses, choice and sequence
Logical connectors
Prepositions
Adverbial position

**** LEXIS

Subdivisions to be considered

Appropriacy
Range
Register
Colloquialisms
Phrasals
Idioms

The choice of subdivisions is partly the result of selecting phonological aspects which appear to be critical in the assessment of intelligibility and social acceptability, partly the result of selecting items which are likely to suffer from mother-tongue interference, and partly the result of selecting items which can be readily identified by the examiner. A splendidly precise series of phonological criteria which only a specialist is capable of identifying and assessing is useless.

C. Grammaticality: some difficulty was encountered in establishing a short list of subskills; it is hoped that the one which is reproduced in the facsimile will prove useful and reasonably valid. Again, it is no use establishing a list of criteria which begins to look like the index of a pedagogical grammar. The examiner has to be able to assess the items with reasonable facility. This list represents items which are essential to intelligibility and social acceptability and are likely to reflect the degree of mastery of aspects of the structure. It is strongly felt that a correct phonological model is more important, even, than a correct grammatical one, especially in the early stages.

D. Clarity and appeal of delivery: this is closely related to intelligibility, but not quite the same thing. The objective is for the teacher's voice to be both clear and pleasant to listen to—not necessarily the same thing. A sergeant-major's voice is undoubtedly clear but, to most people, has a singularly unpleasant sound. We have no right to inflict a teacher on students if his or her voice is aggressive, monotonous, or otherwise likely to "turn them off."

E. Lexis: the list of desiderata represents areas which, if lacking, are likely to prejudice fluent and expressive speech. Unfortunately, ten minutes is not a very long time for a conversation to reveal all these parameters. Nor is it easy to assess a speaker's success in using them. Nevertheless, a serious shortcoming in any of the subskills is likely to result in non-standard or substandard speech. They are therefore aspects of a teacher's oral performance which need to be assessed.

F. Aural comprehension: this looks a little odd, coming, as it does, at the end of the list. It is, however, the teacher's probable performance in the classroom which is being assessed, and not the cadet teacher's ability to instantly understand a wide range of aural input. In a sense, it may be sufficient for the teacher to understand the tapes that are being used in the classroom or in the language laboratory and, of course, to understand what the students are trying to say. Never the less, the capacity of a teacher to improve his or her spoken English will be impeded by a weakness in this area. Such a weakness is often found, in fact, in teachers whose pronunciation is notably defective.

Items A-D have been deliberately weighted somewhat more heavily than E and F in their divergence from the norm. There is, however, little difference between one item and another: the reduction in importance across the page is arithmetical rather than geometrical. It can also be seen from the matrix that a candidate achieving the level immediately below our 'norm' will receive a pass mark–65' In practise, of course, all the skills will not be equally balanced: a process of compensation takes place. Strength in one area is allowed to compensate for weakness in another.

The System in Practise

The examiners make every effort to create a positive, constructive atmosphere during the interviews, not to mention a friendly and relaxed one. Nevertheless, it is clear that the arch-enemy of oral testing–tension- has by no means been eliminated. The interviews are conducted in a fairly traditional way: before the candidates enter the room, they are asked to read a short item of interest to language teachers. Some gems chosen are from Mary Finocchiaro's *English as a Second Language*[1], concerning the various 'myths' which the author discusses, for example 'The No Native language myth,' 'The No Grammar myth,' and so on. The trainees are told that these are going to serve as conversation-starters and that under no circumstances will they be tested on the content of the texts. They are then drawn into conversation on the topics. In practise, however, this was found to be less effective and more tension-producing than letting them talk about themselves: their lives, their studies, their hopes and ambitions. Even this, unfortunately, can cause stress in some of the shyer candidates. Two of the candidates collapsed into speechlessness after a few minutes of very stilted conversation. In this respect, it may be licit to pose the following question: After everything has been done to make the circumstances as relaxed and friendly as possible, if the interview creates undo tension on the trainee, should we not consider how that trainee is likely to cope in the tension-fraught world of language teaching?

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[1] Mary Finocchiaro, *English as a Second Language: from theory to practice.* New York: Regents Publishing Company, Inc. 1974.

More than sixty trainees have now been tested in this way and the results are encouraging. The author has taken part in the testing of thirty of the students, sometimes as interviewer, sometimes as observer. From these sessions, two points have emerged:

There had been some doubt as to whether two examiners could agree on the marks for the various subdivisions. In practise, this was found to be relatively easy when each examiner explained to the other the reason for the proposed allotment of marks. Agreement was then reached by one or both of the examiners yielding a little. It was, however, consistently noticed that differences in assessment were to some extent the result of one of the examiners having some personal knowledge of the candidate. Familiarity with the candidate seemed to interfere with an objective assessment of the student's skills. This made it difficult for the other examiner to accommodate his or her marks and thus reach an agreement. Examples of examiners' comments will exemplify the problem. The examiners who knew their candidates would suggest that their performance was not typical of their average performance because "they were under stress" or "they were not giving their best" in the examination situation. Of course, what was being said might well have been true, but these justificatory remarks and pleas for leniency were only made when there was personal knowledge of or acquaintance with the candidate. Therefore, if one made concessions on that basis, a most unfair discrimination would have been made in favour of those candidates who happened to be known to one of the examiners.

We are well aware that what is being stated here is not new; everyone who has to conduct interviews knows of these problems only too well. What must be emphasised is that they become even more acute when we are measuring a person's oral competence in a second language, every language teacher knows how easily the second-language learner's performance can be prejudiced by what may be roughly described as "nerves." Unfortunately, however desirable friendship and a willingness to make exceptions may be in the classroom, they are dangerous and can result in gross unfairness during an interview.

For these reasons, two examiners should be present, whenever possible; one of them should have no personal knowledge of the candidate. It would be interesting to know whether readers think that neither of the examiners should have personal knowledge of the candidate. A final point about assessment procedures: it is vital for the two observers to make their independent assessments of the individual items before discussing them together. In this way, they avoid being 'contaminated' by their partner's ideas and have the obligation to justify their own marks. These discussions as to what constitutes oral proficiency are also very valuable to the interview teams.

By means of these procedures then, it may be possible to considerably reduce the effects of subjectivity in oral testing. Even more important, perhaps, is the fact that the system described takes into account an existing trend in language teaching today: the increase in non-native teachers. This system attempts to evaluate non-native speakers within the constraints which are often found when teaching English in a non-English speaking country.

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Bright Ideas

Games for Children

Paul Lehnert

When I began teaching children about a year ago, I found them quick to learn, generally interested in English, and energetic. There were, however, some frustrations involved in teaching them; the biggest, perhaps, being their short attention span. This is especially a problem in a multi-level class–if you go slowly for one student, others get bored; and if you move along quickly, someone gets lost. This is, of course, a problem common to all teaching; however, it is often much more obvious with children, who do not always have the patience to sit back and quietly accept boredom or frustration.

One way to try and overcome this problem is to use games to introduce a structure or to reinforce it. Games are also very useful as drills; quick learners enjoy the game aspect, while the slower ones receive necessary reinforcement. However, a danger in using games is that they become nothing more than games; teachers often use them merely to keep the students' attention and make lesson planning a little easier. Unfortunately, in this case, children are not always learning any language.

I would like to present here a few games which are enjoyable for children and which contribute to learning. These games can be adapted to teaching different skills (listening, vocabulary, speaking, and spelling) and to different levels of ability. It is easy to change the focus to suit a particular skill or level, as this does not generally require a change in the format of the game.

The degree of difficulty in all of the following games is controlled by the teacher. For example, the teacher can demand a one word answer–"box," "thin," "yes"–or a longer one–"It is a box," "He is thin," "Yes, I am." This helps the teacher adjust to the different linguistic and age levels that are often found within one class and ensures that lower students receive tasks which they

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are able to do and that higher students are challenged. This is particularly important when there are very shy or sensitive children in the classroom; the teacher should use this control to make sure that these students are not embarrassed in front of the class. This control also makes it possible to use one game with many different ages and abilities. Another point to remember is that, although only one example of how to use each of the games is given here, the teacher can easily adapt the game to suit a particular structure or level.

Duck Duck, Goose Goose

This is based on an old children's game and can be used to teach any language skill. To set up, arrange chairs in a circle, facing outward, with one less chair than the number of students. Select a student to begin, or ask the students to sit down; the student left standing begins. Give that student something to touch another student with (I use a plastic hammer that makes a totally obnoxious sound–the students love it). To teach vocabulary, the teacher (or the student who is beginning) shows the class a vocabulary card but cautions the students *not* to say it. The standing student (#1) then walks around the circle. When he or she wishes, he or she taps another student (#2) on the thigh with the hammer. Student 2 then picks up the hammer and must say the word on the vocabulary card. He or she then chases student 1 around the circle, trying to tap him or her with the hammer before they get to the empty seat. If student 2 succeeds in doing this, he or she sits down again; if not, student 2 takes student 1's place. This can also be used to teach other skills, such as writing (write several words on the board, and the teacher or student points to one of them), questions and answers (the standing student asks a question–"Do you like cars?"–and the taped one must reply–"Yes, I do" or "No, I don't"–before giving chase), and the progressive (students either mime an action or point to a picture). Of course, depending on the level, students can be asked to do much more.

Blindfold

This game can be used for oral practise–making statements, asking and answering questions, and using possessives. One student is blindfolded, and another is asked to say something (preferably a structure the class has been working on). Encourage this student to change his or her voice; the blindfolded student must then guess who is speaking. When practising the use of possessives, ask the student to reply with "His/her name is ________." Alternately, the students could use "Is is ________?" or "I think it's _________." Students always seem to enjoy this, as it is a guessing game for the blindfolded one and the student speaking has the opportunity to disguise his or her voice. There is rarely a problem with boredom on the part of other students, as they enjoy watching. To prevent the blindfolded student from using location to guess the identity of the speaker, ask three or four students to stand up and come to the center of the class; only one will speak. Students could also be encouraged to ask for repetition; begin by using simple expression such as "Once more please," and teach more complex structures as the students progress.

Sound/Spelling/Vocabulary

Divide the students into two teams (ask them to choose a name for the team) and put two identical sets of alphabet cards on a table or write them on the blackboard. Ask a student from each team to come forward and show them a picture card. They must first say the word and then pick up or point to the alphabet card which corresponds to the first letter of the word. The student who does it first wins one point for the team. For example, the teacher points to a picture of a cat. The students must say "cat" and then pick up or point to the letter "c." Alternately, this could be used to teach phonetics. The teacher says the word, and the students pick up or points to the first letter of word. With more advanced students, problematic spelling combinations can be used: *ph,* the various pronunciations of English vowels, and so on.

Concentration

This is modeled after the old television program of the same name and can be used to teach any number of language skills. As the game moves slowly, it is recommended for older students. It also might be advisable to set a time limit. To practise the progressive, make up two identical sets of picture cards which illustrate actions. Arrange them so that the picture is not facing the students; one way to do this is to put them on and above the blackboard and write numbers between them which correspond to the pictures above and below. A student asks "What is number 6?," and is shown the corresponding picture. To continue, she or he must use the progressive tense to identify the action shown on the card. The student then picks a number from the other set and again identifies it. If the pictures match, they are given to the student. Careful observation in necessary to find a matched set, so the students who are waiting for a turn also pay attention. To involve more students, ask them to manipulate the cards and ask a question ("What is he doing?"), or ask two different students to find a matched pair. This game can also be used to teach vocabulary, reading, and many other language skills.

Circle Seat Change

Arrange the chairs in a large circle, facing inward. There should be one less chair than the number of students. One student stands in the middle of the circle and the teacher shows the students a vocabulary card or asks a question. If the standing student answers correctly, everyone changes seats and the standing student tries to find one. The student who does not get a seat stands in the middle. If the standing student answers incorrectly and a seated student moves, the two must change places. For example, the teacher shows the student the word "girl" and asks, "What is this word?" If the student says "girl," everybody changes. If not, no one should move. When students understand this well, they will try and trick the others by answering incorrectly or using a negative—"It's not a girl." If a student begins to move, she or he must come to the center. This can be used for practising vocabulary, reading, correct responses to questions, and much more.

Line-Up/Out the Door

This can be used at the beginning of class or when class is over. The students line up in a row. Show them a vocabulary card, ask them a question, or review whatever is needed. If they answer correctly, the student may sit down (or go home). If not, she or he goes to the end of the line. If a student answers incorrectly the first time, make sure that he or she gets the same task the second time around.

These are just a few of the games which I have used successfully in teaching children. Many other classroom exercises can be turned into a game by making it more lively or by awarding points.

Although this may seem too easy to be true, children seem to derive endless pleasure from such simple activities. Following is a short reference list of sources where games may be found. Although not all of these games are for children, many can be used with children by simplifying the language and format.

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Modified Cloze Procedure as a Method of Measuring Reading Comprehension

Neil McBeath and J.H. Marshall

The Sultan of Oman's Air Force operates two language schools, English Language School (North) in the Capital Area, and English Language School (South) in the Southern Region. These schools are responsible for teaching EFL to all three services of the Sultan's Armed Forces and to most of the branches within those services. English is taught for military purposes, so the task might more correctly be regarded as one of teaching low-level ESP. Moreover, as some of the servicemen who come to classes are absolute beginners, the contraction between their initial lack of ability in language and the complexities of the structures and lexical materials which they are required to master has led to a certain amount of experimentation in teaching methods, and a refusal on our part to become too closely associated with the approach of any one particular methodology.

To this end, at the beginner level, we have largely discarded textbooks. This decision was in part forced upon us because there is no textbook ideally suited to our needs. Omani servicemen will not be required to make conversation about the weather or participate in the ubiquitous party-going which is such a regular feature of EFL texts aimed at the European market. On the other hand, they will have to recognise such low-frequency words as "beret," "rifle," and "missile," and, in order to proceed beyond the absolutely basic level of education, they will have to be able to manipulate the present simple, present continuous, and simple past aspects of time.

Testing structural competence could, of course, be done by using multiple choice questions at the end of a reading passage, but we feel that this may not be the best way.

As some of our students arrive completely unable to read and write in English, and with a minimal Arabic education, the artificial

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nature of a multiple choice test would make it the simplest of tasks to teach them to indicate one answer only as correct. Merely by indicating the first of four possible answers, there is a statistical probability that a candidate would achieve a score of anything up to 25%; but this would tell us nothing about his ability. Neither would this method of testing allow any learning to proceed, for each item in a multiple choice test appears independently, and any attempt to place the items in context simply undervalues the test as a whole. Furthermore, this technique assumes a knowledge of examination techniques which many of these students do not possess, and thus discriminates against them. As Oller (1979:233) states," the multiple choice format is intrinsically inimicable to the interests of instruction," and with this statement we are in total agreement. Successful completion of a multiple choice test depends upon a process of selection, but the student knows that one answer is correct. A last consideration for not using multiple choice is the difficulty inherent in preparing them. To again quote Oller (1979:233), "the preparation of sound multiple choice tests is sufficiently challenging and technically difficult to make them impractical for most classroom needs."

For these reasons, therefore, we have developed tests based on a modified version of cloze procedure; asking our students to rewrite a passage in such a way that they are forced to manipulate the language and so reveal their awareness of its structural modifications. The passages we use are specially written and are generally concerned with familiar aspects of military life or with some place in Oman. This serves as a method of reinforcing previous instruction and allows the students the opportunity to practise reading what is, to them, a fairly lengthy passage with a definite informational content. The students are given a passage such as the following:

> Muscat is the capital of Oman. It is a small town, but Muttrah is near it and Muttrah is very big. Between Muttrah and Ruwi is Jibroo. There is a new mosque in Ruwi, and in Muscat there is the palace of His Majesty Sultan Qaboos. Thirty five kilometres from Muscat is Seeb, and Seeb International Airport.

Working from this stimulus, the students are asked to rewrite the passage by inserting the correct words in the appropriate spaces of a cloze exercise. This is a tightly controlled task, but it is one in which the students are asked to demonstrate a certain amount of heuristic ability.

In this particular example, we are mainly concerned with spatial relationships, but when the passage is rewritten we can determine whether or not the students have understood its informational content. Again, in this particular instance, we have limited ourselves to the use of one verb because Arabic does not normally employ the present tense of the verb "to be" (though there is a rarely used classical form), and we feel that it is important for our elementary students to accustom themselves to its use in English. The fact that only the verb 'to be" is used in the stimulus passage need not, of course, restrict the lexis in the second passage, as can be seen from the example below.

> The capital of Oman . . . (1) . . . Muscat. It . . . (2) . . . a big town. . . . (3) . . . is very big. It is . . . (4) . . . Muscat. . . . (5) . . . is between Muttrah and Ruwi. Ruwi . . . (6) . . . a new mosque but it . . . (7) . . . not have a palace. His Majesty's palace is in . . . (8) . . . Seeb is 35 kilometres from . . . (9) . . . It . . . (10) . . . an airport.

In this exercise, the emphasis in on 1) the noun group, 2) the formation of adverbials, and 3) the order of items in the typical English descriptive sentences outlined above. Students are asked to manipulate these patterns:

1. Muscat is the capital.
   S V C
2. It has a mosque.
   S V O
3. There is a mosque in Ruwi.
   (S) V C A
4. The palace is in Muscat.
   S V A
5. In Muscat there is the palace of His Majesty.
   A (S) V C
6. Seeb is 35 kilometres from Muttrah.
   S V A

A student who can successfully manipulate these sentences within the passage demonstrates not only considerable awareness of some of the complexities of English grammar, but also shows that the information contained in the passage has been understood. To demonstrate how this is achieved, we shall examine the items one by one.

(1) The inversion of the subject and the complement is a deliberate distractor and emphasises the importance of "is" in English. The stimulus passage contains a sentence which, by omitting "is," could be translated directly into Arabic. With an inversion of the subject and complement, Arabic would demand the insertion of a pronoun, but in both cases the demands of English are satisfied by "is."

(2) Only full comprehension of the passage will produce the negative of "is." Furthermore, the subject of the verb is the anaphoric "it,.. where Arabic would demand a feminine pronoun.

(3) Again, cognitive skills are required for the naming of the place and matching the place with its description.

(4) Another matching exercise, but in this case demanding recognition of the spatial dimensions in the original passage.

(5) For the second time, an inversion of subject and complement with the use of "between" giving another spatial clue.

(6) Introduces a second verb–"has"–in a context which is unlikely in Arabic.

(7) Requires the formation of the negative of "to have," which complements the use of the third person singular in item (6).

(8) To complete this item, the student must comprehend the use of "there is" with the adverbial at the start of the sentence. A student who does not understand this construction will be confused by the fact that His Majesty has another palace in Seeb, and hence the mere identification of the words "palace," "Seeb," and "Muscat" will not lead to any clarification.

(9) Another inversion of subject and complement, demonstrating the logical point that if Seeb is 35 kilometres from Muttrah, then Muttrah must be 35 kilometres from Seeb. In other words, the same information can be presented in different ways: while the language alters, the facts do not. This premise is an essential starting point for teaching comparisons in any dimension.

(10) Again the anaphoric "it"–this time referring to Seeb, and further demonstration of the verb "to have" in this third person singular form.

From this demonstration, we feel that we can support Coe's statement that cloze tests are "a powerful tool for both testing and learning" (1979:17), and it is this emphasis on learning which leads us to reject Alderson's (1979) criticism of cloze as "essentially sentence-bound." At our level of instruction, the students are still incapable of comprehending more than very simple sentences, but the use of a stimulus passage avoids the problems which weight cloze tests against students with field-dependent learning styles (see Stansfield & Hensen 1983). The original passage ensures that the demands on the students' cognitive restructuring abilities do not take place in a vacuum.

At this level of teaching, we have deliberately limited our aims, but even so, by using this approach we are able to 1) test comprehension, 2) develop cognitive skills in a potentially more varied way than is possible in other forms of testing, and 3) associate in the reader's mind functions of English writing with the varied structures used in its production. We feel that this type of exercise could be employed at all levels and that the knowledge gained from the contrastive analysis could be used to demonstrate that two versions of a passage contain the same information. This, in turn, could lead to more variety in students' written work, and would lead them to a greater appreciation of the possibilities of paraphrase (see Nash. 1986). We would be interested to hear of other teachers' experiences in using cloze with students at a low level of proficiency.

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Book Review

THE FOREIGNER'S LANGUAGE: A SOCIOLINGUISTIC PERSPECTIVE. Karol Janicki. Oxford: Pergamon Press Ltd., 1985. Pp.86.

British situational language teaching went bankrupt in the 1960's when it was not able to adequately defend itself against the Chomskian challenge that language is creative, hence, unpredictable. Since there are an infinite number of possible situations, it became clear that the language for each situation could never be totally delineated in advance. But it would be wrong to assume that this was the end of situational language teaching. The advocates of such teaching regrouped and reappeared in the 1970's under the banner of the notional/functional approach. More recently, Halliday has promoted his "systemic grammar" as an answer to Chomsky. But when one strips away much of the rhetoric of this "grammar", one finds, at base, situational language teaching updated: the only difference is that now one deals with percentages and probabilities. Admitting the creativity of language, the new situationists claim that, practically speaking, certain situations will produce certain language a reasonable amount of the time. Careful research will be needed to see if this claim is strong enough to affect the future direction of language teaching. It is at this point that Karol Janicki appears.

In *The Foreigner's Language,* Janicki claims to be a strong advocate of Halliday's views on language. Janicki (as does Halliday) sees language as social interaction and sees Chomsky as trapped within the idealized, decontextualized, and standardized language of the sentence. If language is interaction, then it must at least be contextualized. Janicki believes that if one can delineate the context (situation) and the language it produces through careful empirical research, then one can make a great contribution to foreign language teaching. It would certainly be difficult to argue with him on this point.

To reach this noble goal, Janicki proposes the study of what he terms sociolinguistic "deviance" in the foreign language situation (SDFLS). Deviance is defined as variation from some norm. In terms of language, this norm is that found in either the native language situation (NLS) in which all participants are native speakers, or the foreign language situation (FLS) in which at least one participant is recognized as a non-native speaker. The reader should be aware of the fact that "deviance" is intended to be a neutral term. Thus a non-native FLS participant may be variously viewed as extremely friendly or extremely strange, both of which may be considered as deviant behavior.

Quite clearly, Janicki is going to have problems defining the norm in either situation. Variables such as age, sex, race, national origin, and what Janicki calls "historical-attitudinal complex" (roughly speaking, the events which mark our lives and form our various attitudes), make the establishment of any norms for conversational situations difficult, if not impossible. In addition, deviance itself contains a certain relativity with respect to the subjective judgements of native speakers participating in or observing the situation. Janicki realizes these things, but it does not deter him from attempting to define the norm; or at least setting up methods through which it can be assessed.

The main tool for the establishment of norms is error analysis. The second chapter of the book attempts to justify studying SDFLS in this way. In this type of error analysis, the preferred norm of comparison seems to be the FLS. One should not compare deviance with the NLS due to the fact that native speakers in an FLS will accommodate foreigner behavior which, if produced by a native speaker, would be considered "deviant." Of course, the goal of error analysis would be to predict errors via some kind of sociolinguistic contrastive analysis. Yet, at the current stage of FLS knowledge, Janicki admits that "with reference to the sociolinguistic system, all we can predict now is based on intuition and a few fragmentary contrastive studies" (p.28). So it is that by the end of the second chapter one feels the goal of empirical validation of sociolinguistic deviance to be even more distant than it was when one first opened the book.

Undaunted, however, Janicki goes on to describe "specific analytical frameworks and categories applicable for the study of SDFLS" (p.33) in chapter three. "In other words, we will attempt to answer in detail the superficially simple question of 'what to study'" (p.33). And the first part of the chapter does exactly that. One can study deviance from numerous perspectives. For example, how does the speaker's sex influence the perception of deviant behavior? How does topic affect the FLS? How can a non-native speaker handle such things as formality, politeness, directness, and so on? No new ground is broken here, but Janicki clearly shows each perspective.

Midway through the chapter, the author diverges somewhat to point out that native speakers may claim certain elements of language as their property alone. These elements form "intergroup distinctiveness" (p.41), Janicki points out, and such territory must not be encroached upon by non-native speakers. He claims that such linguistic elements as slang, swearing, and "hypercorrect pronunciation" (p.41) may irritate native speakers. Thus another problem arises in the study of deviance. Should we discourage non-natives from becoming too "good" in certain linguistic domains; should we encourage fossilization at certain points? Or as Janicki puts it "what are the optimal levels of linguistic convergence on the part of the foreigner in the foreign language situation" (p.42). Again, what this optimal level is will vary with each native speaker.

Towards the end of this chapter, Janicki deals with the relationship between "linguistic behavior and sociopsychological context" (p.42). Basically, how does the native speaker size up the foreign speaker along such lines as friendly/unfriendly, aloof/sociable, and so on? Among other possibilities, the author, correctly I believe, enlarges on the role of nonverbal behavior in either augmenting or softening the impact of an utterance. For example, "You liar" said with a smile carries a much different impact than if said with a straight face. Eventually, Janicki goes on to name four categories along which a native speaker may react to a foreigner's utterance. A native speaker may react with 1) irritation, 2) amusement, 3) acceptance, or 4) appreciation. Janicki is aware that each category only marks a spectrum. Irritation may run from uneasiness to annoyance, for instance. Complicating the researcher's attempt to assess the participant's emotions during a non-native speaker's utterance is the fact that the native speaker may not show any external reaction, and even a smile may not always indicate amusement. Even more complexities arise when one realizes that an utterance seldom occurs in isolation. More commonly, the emotional reaction to an utterance is caused by the utterance plus the accompanying nonverbal behavior plus the utterance-reaction events preceding the specific utterance. There appears, then, to be no simple link between a specific utterance and a specific emotional reaction on the part of native speakers. At this point, it has become clear that the perception of deviance seems to have become so relative and surrounded by so many variables that one now wonders if any truly significant research can be done on the topic.

So well has the author delineated the problems of research on deviance that he himself cannot escape from them. For that reason, chapter four, "Methods for Studying the Foreigner's Language," is, in my opinion, the low point of the book. What Janicki advocates as "most rewarding" is the study of deviance via "contrived foreign language situations" (p.55). In such situations, the native speaker should provoke "with his own behavior the occurrence of specific types of behavior on the part of the foreigner" (p.56). "Surreptitious tape-recording" is the recommended style of data collection. Besides the ethical considerations of such research, one certainly must question the value of "contrived" data. By keeping the native speaker participant's behavior constant, no matter what the attitude of the non-native speaker, one defeats the purpose. What we want ideally is natural behavior. It does us no good if, for example, the native speaker remains angry while the non-native speaker in truth appears as friendly. We may provoke some sort of behavior, but that behavior will vary with the temperament of the individual foreign speaker. The author gives one example of provoking non-native speakers away from "avoidance techniques." "The analyst has to concentrate, among other things, on how to arrive at data which would naturally emerge were it not for avoidance techniques" (p.62). My question is simply, why aren't avoidance techniques natural, and, if they are, isn't the alternative only serving to provoke the non-native speaker into some sort of unnatural behavior? Though I can understand Janicki's desire to control as many variables as possible, it is not clear that controlling native speaker behavior will produce controlled non-native speaker responses.

Methods of studying deviance are divided into four stages, each stage relating to advances of knowledge acquired in the previous stage. Still, the ultimate research weapons, at least at the first two stages, are the "contrived interview" and the "contrived case study," both seemingly unnatural environments. In any event, Janicki claims that areas of possible research discovered in stage I and II may allow for more controlled experiments at stage III and IV.

But in the end, it seems that we must abandon the 100% predictable hope that Janicki clings to. Studies of natural interaction assessed by native speaker judges on the basis of intuition will give us possible directions for more finely tuned research later on. We may find that certain behaviors will be labelled as more deviant than others in the FLS and we, in turn, may be able to pass on certain suggestions to our students.

The connection to pedagogy is given by the author in the book's last chapter. With very little warning, Janicki throws a haymaker at what he calls the conversational and notional (CN) courses. As he states, "CN type course design should be abandoned, not so much for practical as theoretical reasons... To cut the story short, if we want to teach something (especially in a systematic manner) we must first of all have to know what to teach. In reality the CN courses as promoted at present are based on fragmentary, extremely shaky and unreliable linguistic material" (p.70). "With our present knowledge of both NLS and FLS, CN courses are highly unlikely to gain theoretical justification in the immediate future" (p.71).

Now some may find this language a bit strong. Be that as it may, Mr. Janicki does have a point. When grammar-based teaching ceased to be the "in" thing, there was a mad stampede into the communicative camp. Few bothered to ask for empirical justification or for studies on the delineation of specific speech acts. Communication for communication's sake seemed justification enough. Only later did empirical findings show that communication/conversation was a much more complex phenomenon than it was at first realized. It has since become clear that serious teachers must take such research into consideration.

Much sociolinguistic research has been and is being done. Certainly some sociolinguistic information can be used in the classroom and the situation is probably not as bleak as Janicki indicates. However, he is correct in pointing out the close tie that must exist between the classroom teacher and the researcher. I expect this will be the big thrust in our field in the near future. For as Janicki writes, "the teacher cannot tell the student not to use certain forms if he himself is not sure the restriction is sociolinguistically justified" (p.74). This is especially true for non-native teachers of English who have no native intuition to fall back on.

In the end, Janicki is forced by his dedication to high empirical ideals to recommend "extended GVP" (grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation) teaching—that is, teaching, mainly based on grammar with extensions into sociolinguistics when conditions justify it. As for teaching deviance in the FLS, the teacher is cautioned to be extremely careful due to the "enormous relativity of what is labelled deviant or not." Nothing is mentioned on how one might correct deviant behavior most effectively.

It is true that in the end we are left with really very little as far as dramatic new approaches to sociolinguistic-based teaching is concerned. In a sense, the book grinds to a halt due to the author's own high ideals. He pursues to its logical end the dilemma of trying to attach scientific stability to human individuality.

Though one may not like the book's conclusion, it is nonetheless interesting to see how the author arrives at it. Janicki realizes that some may consider his conclusion a shortcoming. "Some readers may become disillusioned in that they expected from SDFLS analysis more pedagogical guidance than it appears to be able to offer. We think, however, that this disappointment is not justified" (p.80). And indeed it is not. I would certainly recommend this book to anyone interested in the numerous pitfalls of sociolinguistic research, in sociolinguistically-based teaching, or in both. The book, despite being openly theoretical, is not difficult to read. An unhealthy amount of printing and editing errors may make one suspect the seriousness of the work. It is a serious work, however, and may be especially helpful to those teachers interested in expanding their knowledge and their teaching base into the relatively new realm of sociolinguistics.

Steve Mierzejewski

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Announcements

2nd JERUSALEM TEFL-TESOL. July 12-14, 1988; Jerusalem, Israel. For further information, please contact: English Teachers' Association of Jerusalem, P.O. Box 7663, Jerusalem 91076, Israel.

13th JALT INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCE ON LANGUAGE TEACHING/LEARNING. November 21-23, 1987; Waseda University, Tokyo, Japan. The conference will feature over 200 presentations dealing with all aspects of language teaching and learning in a foreign language setting. This year's conference will feature an expanded Job Information Center to serve the needs the 1,500 expected participants. For further information, please contact: JALT Central Office, c/o Kyoto English Center, Sumitomo Seimei Building, 8F, Shijo Karasuma Nishi-iru, Shimogyo-ku, Kyoto 600, Japan.

INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCE IN SPECIAL EDUCATION. May 17-20, 1989; University of British Columbia, Vancouver, Canada. For further information, please contact: Department of Educational Psychology and Special Education, Faculty of Education, University of British Columbia, 2125 Main Mall, Vancouver, BC, Canada V6T 1Z5.

11th UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN CONFERENCE ON APPLIED LINGUISTICS. October 9-11, 1987; University of Michigan, Michigan, USA. The theme for this year's conference is "Variation in Second Language Acquisition." For further information, please contact: Conference Coordinators, English Language Instutute, University of Michigan, Ann Arbour, MI 48109, USA.

Call for Papers: **THE TEACHER TRAINER**. *The Teacher Trainer* is now accepting articles which contribute to the field of teacher training. All inquiries and submissions should be addressed to Tessa Woodward, Editor, *The Teacher Trainer*, c/o 8 Vernon Place, Canterbury, England.

Call for Papers: **CROSS CURRENTS**. *Cross Currents* welcomes manuscripts concerning all aspects of second language teaching and learning. We are particularly interested in articles on: 1) language teaching and learning, especially regarding English as a Second/Foreign Language and English as an International Language; 2) language teaching and learning as they as they apply to the situation in Japan; 3) cross-cultural communication issues; 4) teaching techniques ready for classroom use; and, 5) book reviews. Please direct all manuscript correspondence to: General Editor, *Cross Currents*, 4-14-1 Shiroyama, Odawara, Kanagawa, Japan 250.

Call for Papers: **STUDIES IN LANGUAGE AND LANGUAGE TEACHING (SLLT).** *SLLT,* a bi-annual journal based in Thailand, is now accepting articles concerned with the teaching of English as a Foreign Language and English for Specific Purposes. The focus is both practical and theoretical: the audience includes teachers, administrators, and researchers. Contributions for the July issue should be received by May 15th; for the January issue, the due date is November 15th. Articles should be in the range of 2,000-5,000 words. All submissions must be typed, double-spaced, and follow the guidelines of the *TESOL Quarterly.* Contributors will be notified of editorial decisions within 8-12 weeks. All inquiries and submissions should be addressed to Keith Maurice, Editor, *SLLT,* Department of Foreign Languages, Faculty of Science, Mahidol University, Rama IV Road, Bangkok 10400, Thailand.

Call for Papers: **MITESOL NEWSLETTER.** The *MITESOL Newsletter* is now accepting articles which contribute to the field of foreign and second language teaching and learning in both theoretical and practical domains, especially in the following areas: 1) curriculum, methods, and techniques; 2) classroom observation; 3) teacher education and teacher training; 4) cross-cultural studies; 5) language learning and acquisition; 6) overviews of, or research in, related fields; and, 7) book reviews. Articles should be no longer than 1,200 words. All copy must be typed and double-spaced. Please note that articles will not be returned. All articles and inquiries should be directed to: Donna Brigman, Editor, *MITESOL Newsletter,* 211 Oakwood, Ypsilanti, MI 48197, USA.

Call for Papers: **13th JALT INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCE ON LANGUAGE TEACHING/LEARNING'** November 21-23, 1987; Waseda University, Tokyo, Japan. Proposals for papers, demonstrations, workshops, or colloquia relevant to the conference theme are welcomed. The deadline for proposal consideration is July 1, 1987. For further information, please contact: JALT Central Office, c/o Kyoto English Center, Sumitomo Seimei Building, 8F, Shijo Karasuma Nishi-iru, Shimogyo-ku, Kyoto 600, Japan.

The American Language Institute of the School of Continuing Education of New York University and Language Innovations, Incorporated (LINC), are pleased to announce the inauguration of the annual **FRED W. MALKEMES PRIZE.** The prize of $1000 will be awarded for an article in English published in the two years preceding the submission deadline. Articles on any topic which make a contribution to our knowledge of teaching and classroom practice will be welcome. Special consideration will be given to articles which explore topics of interest to Fred Malkemes, such as helping adults develop listening, speaking, and conversational skills; the application of the principles of Sector Analysis to classroom practice; teaching English in Puerto Rico and Kenya; materials development for beginning ESL students; adult literacy;

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ABOUT *CROSS CURRENTS*

Cross Currents is a semi-annual journal published by the Language Institute of Japan in an effort to contribute to an interdisciplinary exchange of ideas within the areas of communication, language skills acquisition and instruction, and cross-cultural training and learning. We are especially interested in articles on 1) Language teaching and learning, particularly regarding English as a Second/Foreign Language and English as an International Language; 2) Language teaching and learning as they apply in Japan; and 3) Cross-cultural communication issues. We also welcome reviews of recently published books in these areas.

Cross Currents was first published in 1972 with an emphasis on Japan and Japanese students of English. In order to better serve the needs of our growing international readership, we strive to publish articles concerned with teaching methodologies, techniques, and general issues which are multicultural rather than culture-specific. While we greatly appreciate theoretical articles which demonstrate thoughtful and significant research, the need for practical and highly readable articles of interest to classroom teachers remains paramount. We make every effort to include articles which are directly applicable to the classroom. Short practical articles are featured in our Bright Ideas section.

* * *

All articles submitted for consideration should be typed, double-spaced, and in triplicate, with references placed in the body of the text in parentheses with the author's last name, date of the work citied, and page number. Footnotes on substantive matters should appear at the bottom of the page on which the footnote occurs. Please include: 1) a paragraph precis of the article, 2) a short biographical sketch, and 3) a bibliography which should conform with TESOL Quarterly style. Manuscripts should be 5–20 pages in length. Manuscripts will not be returned unless return postage is included. Authors of articles accepted for publication will receive twenty reprints. Authors will retain the right to use the article in future publications, provided that *Cross Currents* is acknowledged as the original publisher; the author is expected to refer all requests to re-publish his or her work to *Cross Currents*. *Cross Currents* will not give permission to reproduce any work published here without the consent of the author.

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Summaries of the Articles

The Power of English Prepositions

Thomas Scovel

Contemporary English relies on the preposition as an important vehicle for conveying meaning and emphasis. However, the author contends that the significance of the preposition is not recognized by grammar books. This article traces the evolution of the preposition into a potent semantic and grammatical force in the oral language. The author suggests some pedagogical applications to make language learners more aware of the preposition's use and escalating importance in the English language.

CLL Revised: Addressing Socio-Cultural Factors in Language Learning

Ruth Wajnryb

Language learners sometimes are unaware of the situation and cultural nuances which are precipitated by the language they use. This article examines the benefits of a modified CLL methodological approach to integrate cultural sensitivity and language learning. This modified version is guided by the principles of CLL but is used with a linguistically heterogenous group of language learners. It employs English as its sole medium of communicative interaction. This article demonstrates how this modified CLL approach, used with intermediate or advanced students, can create or heighten the students' awareness of the socio-cultural factors embedded in language.

Learner Problems in Self-Access Learning: A Case Study

Sorani Wongbiasag

Self-access learning is supported by teaching trends towards the sharing of the learning responsibilities between the teacher and the learner, and individualized learning. This article considers the particular problems apparent in a self-access learning centre at Mahidol University in Bangkok, Thailand, and offers suggestions in

terms of curriculum, syllabus, and teacher and learner training, to help make self-access language learning more effective.

Widening Our Horizons Through Creative Counselling

Robert Paulet

In areas remote from education centres, the adult learner attempts to study with printed material as support. However, recent changes in telecommunication technology allow long-distance learners greater access to teachers and counsellors. Students can still work independently, but the social aspect of learning is being recognized as an important component. Contact with teachers, counsellors, and other students via cassette and telephone allow the remote learner to feel part of a community of learners.

Bright Ideas

Five Mini-Activities for the Language Classroom

Peter Duppenthaler

Mini-activities are an interesting way to challenge your students. They are suitable for almost every group and level of learner. Most only require a few minutes and are quick energizing activities during a lesson or rousing endings. This Bright Idea suggests five mini-activities which are designed to be completed in a relatively short period of time, and can therefore be repeated without student boredom. In addition, these activities are flexible enough that individuals, pairs, groups, or a whole class can do them.

Newspaper Summaries: An Integrated Skills Activity

Max Mayer

Language learners are better able to manage communication through the use of receptive strategies. However, they are often reluctant to ask questions to clarify meaning. In this Bright Idea, the author presents oral newspaper article summaries as an activity which encourages students to develop these receptive skills to accurately give and receive information.

Bringing News Articles into the ESL Classroom: Speeding the Acquisition of Comprehension Skills

David O'Reilly and Virgil Palmer

Newspaper articles provide a context for the acquisition of vocabulary and a focus for discussions. This Bright Idea suggests how to promote greater comprehension and confidence. By considering the basic structural organization of a newspaper article, students learn to seek the answers to general comprehension questions and to use context as a key to the understanding of the main idea and specific vocabulary.

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ABOUT THIS ISSUE

As winter again makes way for spring, one is reminded of the mutability inherent in man's environment. His language, too, is not hermetic but constantly in a state of transition. Change–in the roles of learner and teacher, in methodology, in the English language itself–thematically informs this Spring issue of *Cross Currents.*

Our lead article, "The Power of English Prepositions", by Thomas Scovel, looks at the changes in the semantic and grammatical importance of the preposition. The author makes a provocative argument for greater pedagogical consideration of this part of speech. He traces its historical evolution and provides many examples of the preposition's present force in conveying meaning.

In "CLL Revisited: Addressing Socio-Cultural Factors in Language Learning", Ruth Wajnryb considers a modified version of Community Language Learning as a useful methodology that addresses the socio-cultural aspects of language learning and helps integrate an understanding of culture with language acquisition. As the learning process takes place, the relationship between learner and teacher changes. The teacher, acting as a counsellor, has the learners recreate the context of an exchange in which cross-cultural miscommunication occurs. In this way, the learner gains independence, learning through their own referential and contextual information towards greater awareness of socio-cultural factors.

Learner independence is also a consideration in Sorani Wongbiasag's "Learner Problems in Self-Access Learning: A Case Study". Self-access learning is a learning approach in which the learner is allowed to make decisions about his learning process. The author considers the particular problems which impeded optimum use of the self-access study centre at Mahidol University. The results of the case study suggest reconsideration in terms of curriculum and syllabus, personnel, and the learners themselves.

Changes in telecommunications have expanded the opportunities of learners in remote communities taking distance education courses. In Robert Paulet's article, "Widening Our Horizons through Creative Counselling", the needs of adult distance learners are discussed in view of the changing technology. Counselling and support services are seen as essential for integrating the remote learner into a community of learners. New technology offers a support system which personalizes and humanizes the distance teaching system.

In this issue's Bright Ideas section, Peter Duppenthaler suggests some mini-activities which can be recycled. Their brevity retains student interest in spite of repetition. "Five Mini-Activities for the Language Classroom" provides practice with pronouns and comparison, and develops quick recall and listening comprehension.

The other two articles consider newspaper article summaries. In Max Mayer's "Newspaper Summaries: An Integrated Skills Activity", the focus of the activity is to develop receptive strategies through newspaper summaries. Students learn to take responsibility for their understanding and being understood. In "Bringing News Articles into the ESL Classroom: Speeding the Acquisition of Comprehension Skills" by David O'Reilly and Virgil Palmer, newspaper article summaries are used to develop reading comprehension and build vocabulary while developing students' confidence in their ability to effectively orally communicate information.

This issue includes one book review, Ilene Kradin looks at Zsuzsanna Ardo's *Management English*, a book published in Hungary.

The format of *Cross Currents* will be changing next issue. There will be a "Letters to the Editor" section. We invite your comments on past articles and welcome suggestions for upcoming issues. Your letters will provide us with valuable information about your interests.

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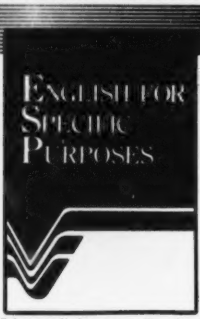

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The Power of English Prepositions

Thomas Scovel

One of the best kept secrets of English grammar is that prepositions have taken over the language–so much so that English has become the most prepositional language that I know of. Most grammar books ignore this development, and even the excellent modern grammars of contemporary English do not seem to recognize the extremely important role that prepositions now play in the syntax and semantics of the language. Thus, even copious and detailed grammars of English by Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman (1983) and Quirk, Greenbaum, Svartvik, and Leech (1983) and Quirk, Greenbaum, Svartvik, and Leech (1985) do not emphasize the importance of prepositions in contemporary English. The purpose of this article, then, is to demonstrate the validity of my claim concerning the preposition's growing pre-eminence by briefly reviewing the historical evolution of English prepositions and by documenting their syntactic and semantic import, and then discussing a few of the ways that prepositions can be more effectively taught in EFL classes. I firmly believe that if EFL teachers are more cognizant of the role that prepositions play in contemporary English, and if they are successful in sharing this perspective with their EFL students, learners of English will have a quicker and more profound understanding of both the forms and the functions of this important world language.

Thomas Scovel, an Associate Professor at San Francisco State University, teaches ESL, Applied Linguistics, and Psycholinguistics. He has just completed a book on the critical period for language acquisition called *A Time to Speak* to be released by Newbury House/Harper & Row this year.

As most students of English grammar know, English began as a highly inflected language like contemporary German but has now lost so many of those inflections that it is grammatically more similar to an "isolating" language like Thai or Chinese than it is to most of its contemporary Indo-European cousins. For example, Old English, which was spoken in England approximately a millenium ago, marked case relationships with noun suffixes, and prepositions were either used redundantly with these noun phrases or not at all. In contrast, in contemporary Modern English, most of these Old English case inflections have been lost, and all of them have been replaced by prepositions. Consider examples (1)–(3):

(1) He ate the noodles *with* chopsticks (instrumental case);

(2) She is a strong supporter *of* education (genitive case);

(3) We sent a letter *to* our friends (dative case).

Modern English has no suffixes to mark the various case relationships implied by these various sentences. Instead, the case role of the noun phrase in each of the examples is marked by a preposition. For (1), either *with* or *by* is used in the contemporary language to mark instruments. Note that the use of the instrumental case implicates the existence of an "actor", someone to use the instrument, and a "recipient", someone or something that is acted upon (Fillmore, 1968). Examples (2) and (3) represent slightly more complicated structures because the language is still in the process of progressing from an inflected marking of the genitive and dative cases to a prepositional form of indicating these case relationships. For example, in both (2) and (3), there are two ways of saying the same thing in contemporary English, although they are not always interchangeable. The "older" inflected form of the genitive or possessive uses a noun suffix (4), whereas the "newer", prepositional form uses a reversed word order with the preposition *of* (5).

(4) She is my father's friend.

(5) She is a friend of *my* father.

Because there are two similar forms used concurrently in the present language, the possessive is particularly troublesome to learn for all EFL students, irrespective of their mother tongue. Not only do they have to keep the word order straight, they also have to pick up the subtle differences in usage that are sometimes found in the two forms. Although (4) and (5) are mutually interchangeable, the older inflected possessive is preferred for animate or human nouns whereas the newer pattern with *of* is preferred for inanimate objects.

The marking of indirect objects in contemporary English is almost as confusing because the language is at an historical crossroads. English is simultaneously acquiring a new dative marker, *to*, which is used with a new word order in which the indirect object follows the direct object, while still retaining the older word order pattern in which the indirect object precedes the direct object. In this latter situation, however, the dative inflection has been lost completely, so that the only vestige of the older form, which has no preposition, is the ordering of the indirect object before the direct object. Compare sentences (6A) and (6B).

(6A) We sent a letter *to* our friends.

(6B) We sent our friends a letter.

Some traditional grammar books, ones which describe English as a bastardized version of Latin, mistakenly claim that "our friends" is not an indirect object in (3) but is an indirect object in (6). They reason that the first sentence contains a prepositional phrase with *to*, so that "our friends" is the direct object of the preposition *to* in (3), and that the entire prepositional phrase functions as an indirect object (Curme, 1961). Such an explanation not only completely ignores the prepositional nature of the modern language, it completely obfuscates the true grammatical structures of these two sentences for the EFL student, and thus makes a difficult learning situation only worse! The most important "rule" to learn from sentences like (3) and (6) is that in both sentences "our friends" received the letter and, therefore, this noun phrase is clearly dative for both the newer and the older patterns that are used in the present day language.

Prepositions have not only replaced the instrumental, genitive, and dative inflections that were once the sole markers of noun-cases, they are also used to mark adverbial and adjectival phrases. Again, we have the use of inflections such as -ly for adverbs or -ful for adjectives, but these derivational suffixes can be readily replaced by prepositions such as *with*, *by*, and, *of* as in (7), (8), and (9) respectively:

(7) Porcupines always make love *with* care ("carefully");

(8) We renew our licenses year *by* year ("yearly");

(9) I don't think I can be *of* help ("helpful").

I should make one point clear at this juncture. In terms of usage, I am not arguing for the exclusive use of prepositions in these examples as more preferred or more acceptable patterns in contemporary speech. I am not saying that (7), (8), and (9), to cite three instances, are clearer, better, or more acceptable English sentences than the equivalent expressions using "carefully", "yearly", or "helpful". However, it is important to demonstrate that the replacement of inflections by prepositions is an active and irrevocable process in the language, and that this gradual transformation is a natural part of the evolution of English that is frequently misperceived by grammarians and grammar books.

One of the best examples of this misperception is the popular rule that most native speakers (and some EFL students, unfortunately) are taught somewhere in their early schooling in English that a sentence should never end with a preposition. This rule was never an accurate description of the language; it was imposed on the language by Bishop Lowth in his late eighteenth century grammar which was based on Latin (Lowth, 1762). One of my favorite examples of the irrelevance of the proscription against ending sentences with prepositions is sentence (10), which was reputedly spoken by a five year old girl to her father when he brought upstairs a bedtime book which she disliked to read to her. The sentence is completely "grammatical", indeed, it is very symmetrical in the way that discontinuous elements are tied together, and note that it ends not with one but five prepositions!

(10) What did you bring the book that I didn't want to be read
to out of up for?

Aside from the historical evolution of prepositions in English as modern markers of grammatical functions formerly indicated by inflectional and derivational suffixes, another clear way of recognizing the importance of prepositions in the contemporary language is to see the way they are used syntactically and semantically to mark a wide and versatile range of expressions. Note, for example, the frequent use of prepositions in the innovative phrases used especially by the younger generation of language users: "right *on*"; "*out of* sight"; "*up* yours"; "later *on*"; and, "*for* sure". Observe that the last expression is an apt example of the replacement of the older *-ly* suffix by *for*; "surely" certainly does not have the colloquial currency of the popular "for sure".

Another way in which we can see the power of prepositions in contemporary speech is through error analysis. In both the mistakes made by native speakers and the errors made by EFL learners of the language, we can see an almost insidious tendency to replace other parts of speech with prepositions. It is almost as if there is an intuitive attempt by English users to employ a preposition when in doubt, and this subtle psycholinguistic strategy is another indication that English is becoming more of a prepositional language. Sentence (11) is a typical spelling mistake that I have seen made by even highly competent native writers of English (some of them well-educated EFL instructors).

(11) I should *of* studied harder before the examination.
(I should've studied harder before the examination.)

Phonologically, the preposition *of* and the contracted auxiliary *'ve* are indistinguishable, and perhaps because there are other auxiliaries which do use prepositions (e.g. "ought to", "have to", and "sort of"), by false analogy, English spellers introduce the "incorrect" *of*. I purposely place incorrect in quotes because it is entirely possible that we are witnessing the birth of a diachronic change in the language at the present, and eventually, *of* might replace *'ve* and *have* as the auxiliary of the future. We see a similar type of prepositional substitution in an example from child language acquisition, where a young native speaker of English replies to a comment her uncle made about horseback riding:

(12) Uncle: "She's never ridden one".
Niece: "I've never rid *on* one either".

But native speakers are not the only ones who overgeneralize in their use of prepositions. Sentence (13) is taken from a short passage of free verse which decorated the wall of a "MOS BURGER" fast food outlet in Japan and which was presumably written by a good, but not completely fluent, non-native user of English.

(13) "Listen *to* the Mountain, you find *out* the Hope.
Close *to* the Ocean, you find *out* the Love.
Believe *in* the Sun, you find *out* the Dream".

Although I am not quite able to decipher all of the cohesive factors that make this text, there is a definite parallelism between the pairs of phrases, and prepositions help mark it. The writer has obviously overgeneralized the use of *out*: "find out" which means "to discover" is not as appropriate as "find" which means "to obtain". This overuse of *out* is what I would call a good error, an excellent error in fact, because the writer has not missed the mark by much, and has maintained a textual parallelism through the use of prepositions. Exceptionally gifted users of English employ this same rhetorical device in their oral and written prose, and so even though (13) is technically incorrect, it still serves as a useful model of modern prepositional usage.

Traditional grammars frequently point out that_prepositions, like articles, are function words, and do not normally receive primary phrasal stress in spoken English. This might be one reason why they are difficult for non-native speakers to learn: they are difficult to hear. This explanation is somewhat vitiated by research in morpheme acquisition by children learning English as their native tongue because prepositions are generally acquired very early, even though they are just as difficult for native learners to hear as non-native learners.

Be that as it may, contrary to what certain grammars tell us, prepositions often do receive phrasal stress in English. Contrast (14) and (15): in the former, stress normally falls on the noun, "man"; in (15), in order for the sentence to be understood as "the man regained consciousness", primary stress must fall on the preposition. Note too, of course, that (15) is just another example of how many English sentences quite naturally end with a preposition. A few traditional grammarians neatly try to avoid this problem by renaming them "particles"; they would simply call *to* a particle in this example, but this argument is about as specious as an alcoholic calling a gin and tonic a "soft drink" in order to create the impression that he is not actually drinking hard liquor.

(14) The man came too.

(15) The man came *to*.

The best example I have where prepositions are stressed in spoken English, and also carry salient grammatical and semantic information, is a sentence I heard on a radio talk show about Alcoholics Anonymous a few years ago in the United States. The speaker was asked by the talk show host what made him change his habits, and his reply was a model of concision and clarity, largely because he chose two-word verbs using prepositions to frame his answer.

(16) It finally came to the point where alcohol wasn't doing anything *for* me; it was doing things *to* me; in fact, it almost did me *in*!

Because the key words in this sentence were *for*, *to*, and *in*, they were the only three syllables in the utterance that received stress. I defy anyone to translate this sentence into any other language with such clarity and concision. In fact, it would detract a great deal from the communicative and rhetorical power of this utterance if the two-word verbs were substituted by more erudite Latin words (e.g. "detrimental" is a relatively paucid replacement for "do to"; furthermore, it does not maintain the rhythm and parallelism of the original sentence).

Grammatically, prepositions now play an extremely diverse role in contemporary English because of their peculiar historical rise to morphological and syntactic power, and because of their communicative and rhetorical import. They are the only part of speech which can be used as any other part of speech, as the examples in (17) to (21) indicate:

(17) I don't feel like going *in* today (adverb);

(18) A proton is made up of *up* quarks and *down* quarks (adjectives);

(19) It must be Friday, *for* we're all feeling tired (conjunction);

(20) I'm sure he has an *in* with his boss (noun);

(21) They've *upped* their prices year after year (verb).

Another demonstration of the grammatical versatility of prepositions is their use as "two-word" verbs: they are exceedingly common in English in either their "separable" or phrasal form or as "non-separable" prepositional verbs. They also are quite flexible semantically, and many of them have several divergent meanings, depending on their gramatical context or the presence of other prepositions, for example:

(23) He *struck out* in his attempts to get hired ("failed");

(24) He *struck out* on his own ("set forth");

(25) He *struck* it *out* because it offended him ("removed");

(26) He *struck out* at the stranger ("attacked").

An even more remarkable example of the power of prepositions in modern English is their complex, almost unpenetrable, grammatical and semantic relationships in certain very common usages. The following sentences display this complexity in ascending order. There may be fairly straightforward historical and lexical explanations for the meaning of the first few sentences, but the last two (30 and 31), pose challenges to even the most assiduous grammarian.

(27) An *in* house memo has nothing to do with an *out* house.

(28) The kids were scared because someone was *after* them.

(29) They expanded the debt ceiling *by* $50 to $985 billion.

(30) The wolf thought it would make a meal *of* the donkey.

(31) She knows she has a friend *in* her husband.

Although the meaning and grammatical relationships expressed by *by* in (29) are fairly straightforward, note how the use of a different preposition, *from* to replace *by*, would amount to a difference of $935 billion! But the key problems are found in (30) and (31) where the prepositions *of* and *in* mark embedded clauses in the deep structure, and in both clauses there is a copular relationship between the two noun phrases. That is, *of* and *in* seem to be surface structure manifestations of the verb *is* for both sentences, so that (30) and (31) are derived, in part, from (30A and (31B).

(30A) The donkey *is* the meal.

(30B) Her husband *is* a friend.

How these relationships become syntactically manifested in prepositions, and why (30) uses *of* and (31) uses *in* are questions that I cannot begin to answer. They do suggest, however, that the conventional notion that prepositions are simply unstressed "function words" of limited usage is an idea whose time is long past.

Finally, prepositions are not only important lexically, syntactically, and semantically, they play a significant stylistic or rhetorical role in the language. We have already seen that from the eloquence of (16) above, but other examples abound. Following are some examples that I have recently gleaned: (32) attempts to define the true nature of appropriate bilingual education programs and was taken from a U.S. government document; (33) is an excerpt from a sermon on the importance of generosity; a friend who tried to simultaneously explain that he and his wife enjoyed classical music, but at the same time preferred to stay at home listening to it rather than to attend concerts came up with (34); from a Gary Larson cartoon, (35) is the caption of a picture of two Americans on safari, and one is imploring the other not to make fun of a large African cape buffalo; and finally, a recent newspaper sports story on the age of the Boston Celtics basketball team, (36) attempts to suggest that some of the players were as old as the coach, K.C. Jones, himself a professional athlete some two decades ago.

(32) "They must receive substantial instruction *in* and *through* the language."

(33) "I'm not *out of* something when I give; I'm *into* something.

(34) "Symphonies are one genre we don't go *out for*; we go *in for* them but we don't go *out for* them."

(35) "Goldberg you idiot! Don't play tricks on those things! They can't distinguish between laughing *with* and laughing *at*!"

(36) "Did these guys really start out playing *with* K.C. Jones instead of *for* him—or does it just seem that way?"

Now that I have hopefully demonstrated the way in which prepositions have evolved historically into a potent grammatical and semantic force in contemporary English, I would like now to turn briefly to the questions of how these insights might be applied to the EFL classroom. If English is indeed a prepositional language, as I have argued, then how can we incorporate them more effectively in our EFL pedagogy?

For teachers who feel comfortable employing traditional drills and exercises, either because their class size or curricula require more conventional procedures, here is a simple drill that can be used by beginning level students to practice distinguishing between phrasal and prepositional verbs. EFL students are constantly looking for a rule or pattern that will help them distinguish between "separable" phrasal verbs like ("take in") and "non-separable" prepositional verbs like ("believe in"), but this is an irregular part of English and must be learnt by practice and intuition, just like reading *kanji* in Japanese. For Japanese EFL students looking for "the rule" for determining whether a two-word verb is separable or non-separable, the teacher could promise to give them one just as soon as the Japanese students could provide "the rule" for determining when the *kanji* for mountain is pronounced *san*, *zan*, or *yama*! In this exercise, after students have learnt the meaning of the two-word verbs to be drilled, I would have them call on each other to use the B-forms provided below. That is, one student would give a form with a noun object (A), and then call on another student to use the same form with a pronominal object (B). Then that student would, in turn, call on yet another student with a new A form.

A (noun objects)	B (pronoun objects)
take in the laundry	take *it* in
believe in our children	believe in *them*
cry over your losses	cry over *them*
put down the students	put *them* down
look over the issues	look *them* over
go down the street	go down *it*

A more meaningful exercise, but one that would probably work best with more advanced students, is to ask students to paraphrase one sentence with another, but not using the preposition that is found in the first sentence. Again, this exercise could be done among the students themselves, although it is certainly possible to use this type of drill for written homework or for part of a grammar test. Students are given the A form and they must come up with something similar to the B form.

A: She gave a gift *to* her mother.
B: Her mother received a gift from her.

A: This is a policy *of* our school.
B: Our school has this policy.

A: She solved the problem *with* a calculator.
B: She used a calculator to solve the problem.

For teachers who use dialogues and role plays, even intermediate level students can work with materials which contain the following prepositional patterns. They are very common in colloquial intercourse and lend an air of authenticity to dialogues.

She's smiling. She's looking *up*. She's *up* today.
They're sad. They're looking *down*. They're *down* today.
Aoki has gone five *under* par. He's *on* today.
Norman is now five *over* par. He's *off* today.

Note that these classroom procedures are useful not simply because they help acquaint the students with the correct lexical meaning, the appropriate grammatical form, or the most effective communicative intent; they are also useful because they help create a sense of understanding at a deeper level. If EFL students can eventually come up with the same intuitions that native speakers have about prepositions (for example, some pairs of prepositions reflect a fairly consistent contrast in meanings: *up* and *on* are generally positive in connotation; *down* and *off* are generally negative in meaning), they will gradually develop the same ability that native speakers use when they encounter new usages of prepositions (37 and 38).

(37) You can't view the videotape; the VCR is *down* again.
(38) I think the meat's *off*. Here, smell it.

Eventually, EFL students might even be able to intuitively understand more complex usages of prepositional pairs, for example, the subtle contrast in meanings between "going in" for something (39) and "going out" for something (40).

(39) He goes *in* for surfing in a big way.
(40) She doesn't go *out* for bridge; she prefers outdoor sports.

Observe that *in* and *out* specifically do not refer to "inside" and "outside" or "indoors" and "outdoors" in these two sentences, and it is important for English learners to recognize this deeper and more subtle underlying meaning reflected in the use of *in* and *out*. It is this precise difference that makes the use of *in* in (17) difficult for EFL students to comprehend. A wife who is feeling ill might come out with (17), meaning that she did not feel like going *outside* to the car to drive *in* to work. If a student is aware of these almost metaphorical uses of contrastive pairs of prepositions, they will gradually understand that it is not at all incongruous to use "go *in*" when a person is sitting inside and will actually be "going *out*" to "go *in*."

Finally, for advanced students, excellent discussion topics and composition themes can be derived from the following examples of rhetorical uses of prepositions. They are all direct quotes taken from the oral or written prose of eloquent native speakers, and are excellent examples of how important prepositions are to an appreciation and understanding of contemporary English discourse. (41) is taken from a brochure defending the importance of "Women Studies" departments on college campuses. (42) is a quote from one of Jesse Jackson's presidential campaign speeches. (43) is taken from the same sermon on generosity which also served as the source of (33). And, finally, (44) is obviously drawn from the final sentence of the famous "Gettysburg Address" by President Lincoln.

(41) "Many administrators and academicians do not truly understand the distinctions between a study *of* women and a study *for* women."

(42) "Hispanics, women, peace advocates, and environmentalists must turn *to* each other and not *on* each other."

(43) "What we appreciate most is not a present *from* someone, but a present *of* someone."

(44) "... and that government *of* the people, *by* the people, and *for* the people shall not perish from the earth."

Although we have, of course, no tape recordings or films of the well-known Gettysburg Address, we can almost envision Lincoln punctuating those final three prepositions with phrasal stress and perhaps even hand gestures, so important are they to his eloquent definition of democracy. An excellent composition topic would be to have advanced EFL students write a three-paragraph essay on "Democracy" in which each paragraph would spell out why true democracy must be composed first, *of* the people, second, *by* the people, and finally, *for* the people. One could even argue that complete democracy does not exist if any one of these three criteria is missing.

I hope that the secret I have shared with you is both revealing and useful. I hope that the historical, syntactic, semantic, and stylistic examples I have given will convince you of the significance of prepositions in contemporary English, and I hope that some of the pedagogical applications which I have suggested will prompt you to consider ways by which you can apply this linguistic insight more effectively in your EFL teaching. But most importantly of all, it is my hope that through the use of new insights about English, and through useful innovations about teaching, you will become a teacher whom your students will not only believe, but grow to believe in.

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CLL Revisited: Addressing Socio-Cultural Factors in Language Learning

Ruth Wajnryb

Introduction

Community Language Learning (henceforth, CLL) is associated with the name of Charles Curran (1960, 1972, 1978) who devised the methodology and recorded his experiences in the field with a fervour that some would term evangelical. It was later the subject of extensive investigation and experimentation by Earl Stevick (1980) whose commitment to the methodology matched Curran's in its zeal and vehemence. Such earnestness as that exhibited by Curran and Stevick is characteristic of the spokespersons of "avante-garde" fringe methodologies in the field of language teaching (cf. Caleb Gattegno and the Silent Way; Georgi Lozanov and Suggestopedia); and one should perhaps be prepared to temper the enthusiasm imparted by exposure to such writings with the sobering pragmatism that is born of classroom realities. Nevertheless, in my many attempts to find satisfaction with a methodology that addresses socio-cultural factors and facilitates an integrated language-culture approach, it is in fact a modified version of CLL that has proved the most rewarding.

Curran's Model

The original (pure) CLL in Curran's model is a method of language teaching that focuses on the language recorded by a small group (a "community") of learners (or "clients"). The group is homogenous in their L_1 and the teacher (or "knower or counsellor") is bilingual in the learners' L_1 and the target L_2. The group

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sits in a closed circle with a tape-recorder in their midst; the teacher "hovers" on the periphery of the circle and is available to the learners on their demand; they call on the teacher when they feel they need help. Each such session produces a recording in the L_2 and this "investment" of the learners in effect becomes the course "text" for the learning program. In this manner, the teacher in the Curran model leads the learners through various crucial stages of the learning process, beginning with total dependence and culminating in "selfhood" or independence. Curran likens this process with aspects of the human life cycle, referring, for example, to the helplessness of the *foetus in utero* and to the confidence of separate independent adulthood.

Central to CLL is a core of crucial tenets or guiding principles that determines the spirit and governs the conduct of the methodology. Although I do not subscribe to them with exactly the same zealous enthusiasm as a teacher in the Curran mould, I nonetheless do concede that they account to a large extent for the success that the methodology yields. Firstly, CLL is experientially-based and -oriented. Its proponents assert that the best way to learn a language is through the experience of trying. Hence the learners *use* language, rather than *learn about* it. Secondly, it is learner-centred, on the premise that the most authentic learning environment is the one that allows learners to structure knowledge for themselves. Hence the learner-produced texts which become the foundation of the "syllabus". Thirdly, it is an offshoot of the School of Humanistic Psychology which argues that learning must engage the learner affectively as well as cognitively. Much attention is paid to the factors of anxiety, insecurity, vulnerability, and loneliness in (language) learning. Hence the "community" concept, founded on a cooperative rather than competitive spirit, and aimed at engendering communal trust in a supportive learning group. Fourthly, there is the unorthodox relationship of teacher/learner, symbolized in the terms "knower-counsellor"/"client", used to denote the relative roles. Curran explores the notions of dependence and independence in great detail for in his eyes they are crucially related to learning. He compares the enthusiasm of early success with the elation of an amputee beginning to walk with artificial limbs (Curran, 1972a p. 162-3). A related notion is that of "learner space". Curran perceives a "distance" existing between teacher and learner, one that changes significantly through the learning process. This is central to Curran's philosophy of teaching and learning and highlights the inherently dynamic nature of CLL (La Forge, 1977, p. 298).

CLL Revisited

The modified version of CLL that I have employed is guided by the principles outlined above but embodies some crucial differences, the most important of which are detailed below. Firstly, the group is not homegenous but heterogenous in their L_1, this factor arising from the nature of most classes in the Adult Migrant English Program in Australia today. The second difference is in the principle of bilingualism in the classroom: The L_1's of the learners are not used at all in the learning process, English being the sole medium of interaction, both learner-to-learner and learner-to teacher. Thirdly, most of my experimentation in this field has been with intermediate to advanced level students, and does not concern itself with the raw beginner. Fourthly, in the teaching programmes in which I have been involved, CLL is only a part (on average, one-fifth) thereof, and is therefore *not* the total methodology to which the learners are exposed. The remainder of the teaching week is taken up with more orthodox and conventional procedures, of the structural-functional or skills-based type. This again is a by-product of staffing and facility realites, rather than an ideological decision. Fifthly, CLL is used primarily for the creation and heightening of an awareness of socio-cultural factors in language, and not as a tool for grammatical instruction.

Four Phases

The procedure, briefly, has four phases: taping, reflection, analysis, and follow-up. There are some borrowings here from the Curran model, some amendments and some additions. In the first phase, the "community of learners" (in groups of about four) are left *alone* with a tape recorder (with which they feel comfortable technically,) for about 10–15 minutes during which time they record their "investment". The topic of discussion may or may not be provided by the teachers; ideally the students come to settle on their own "field of discourse". Immediately following the taping phase, the groups of learners are asked to reflect on the experience just passed and to share their reflections with the rest of the class. This phase is very important for its cathartic value, and in some ways in akin to the "de-role" phase that should follow a role-play. The third phase occurs at a later date, once a transcription has been made of a segment of each recording. This becomes the analysis session, and it is here that attention is drawn to the socio-cultural dimension. In the last phase, the follow-up session, the difficulties highlighted during the analysis phase are given "remedial" treatment: in situations and simulations carefully contrived by the teacher, the students are given opportunity to practise language in a controlled and monitored environment.

Counselling Strategies

The phase of CLL that addresses the socio-cultural dimension is the analysis for the students' recordings. Because our concern here is primarily socio-cultural, and because in this phase one is confronted by incidents of cross-cultural miscommunication, often conflict, it is crucial that the analysis be handled with extreme caution and great sensitivity. Much is at stake here—cultural identity, self-image, sympathy or antipathy to L_2/C_2, receptiveness or hostility to learning, and the group dynamic of the learning community. For such reasons, counselling strategies have proven extremely effective as a means of conducting this phase.

It is a basic tenet of the counselling approach that the teacher never impose his or her idea of the error(s) in cross-cultural exchange, but instead have the learners re-create and re-establish the context of the original exchange and in so doing inadvertently, as it were, highlight the source of miscommunication. An example should elucidate this approach. Below is part of an exchange that occurred between Sophia, a Russian learner and her recording group. The field of discourse was stress and its effect on the quality of one's life:

> Sophia: I think it is very important not to be stressed in your life, because I think it is very difficult thing to live and to do something in this way that you want if you are under influence of all nervous ... Can you understand me?
>
> Others: Yes, mm, yes.
>
> Sophia: and I think that stress can spoil your invention and all things that you want to do ...

Below is a transcription of the exhange that took place in the analysis phase between the teacher and Sophia in the presence of the rest of the class and involving other members of the original recording group. While language-learner language has been "tidied up" a little in the grammatical sense, the meaning is a faithful rendering. The transcript does not of course indicate tone–here it is one of the teacher's very *gently guiding* Sophia, in small calculated steps, towards an understanding of how her language choices encode meaning. Like many language learners, Sophia is not always totally aware of the impact of what she says on her interlocutors. Working with Sophia and the others, the teacher gently explores the context and the various intentions of the participants in the conversation for the purpose of highlighting the language choices made as well as the language options that may have been more appropriate.

Teacher: (very gently) Sophia, you asked the others "can you understand me?" Why did you say that?

Sophia: (Shyly) I don't know. I suppose because I wanted to know if they understood me.

Teacher: Did you think they didn't understand you?

Sophia: No, I *knew* they *understood* me, my *words*, I mean.

Teacher: But you asked them if they understood you.

Sophia: Yeah.

Teacher: If you knew that they understood, how come you said that? You already knew the answer.

Sophia: I don't know.

Teacher: How were you feeling at the time?

Sophia: Embarrassed!

Teacher: (gently echo) Embarrassed?

Sophia: Yes, I was talking and talking and I did't know if they were interested in what I was saying.

Teacher: (echo) So you were worried that they weren't interested.

Sophia: Yeah, that's right.

Teacher: (innocently)	Sophia was worried that you were not interested in what she was saying. Were you interested?
Others:	Oh yes! yes!
Teacher: (to Sophia)	Look, they say they *were* interested!
Sophia:	Yes, yes, they say that *now*, but I didn't know that *then*.
Teacher:	Oh, you didn't know that when you were speaking, that's why you asked the question.
Sophia:	Yes, that's right.
Others: (a bit put out)	But we *didn't* interrupt you. We let you speak. We were paying attention. We were listening quietly.
Sophia:	Yeah, that's right, it's true. But maybe you were listening without interrupting just to be polite. I mean, maybe *really*, you were bored and just waiting your chance to interrupt. I didn't want to go on and on if you were bored.
Others: (protesting)	But we *weren't* bored! We were *interested!*
Sophia: (shrugging)	Yeah, well, maybe.
Teacher: (to Sophia)	When you said "Can you understand me?" What was your intention? What did you want?
Sophia: (frustrated)	I wanted them to *help* me.
Teacher: (inquringly)	Help you?
Sophia:	Help me! Yeah.
Teacher: (feigned confusion)	What do you mean "help you"?
Sophia: (increasing frustration)	I don't know. I was feeling bad–I wanted them to help me.
Teacher: (rephrasing)	Do you mean you wanted them to show their interest, to sort of encourage you?

Sophia: Yes! Yes! that's it!
(excited) Encourage! Encourage!

Negotiating Meaning

As can be seen from the above exchange, the teacher is gently, if single-mindedly, *leading* the learners towards an understanding of the problem at hand, *working through* the referential and contextual information that *they* provide, towards the goal of socio-cultural understanding and awareness. For a number of reasons, it is vital that the teacher work with and through the contributions furnished by the learners. Firstly, without precise knowledge of the context of the situation in which the original exchanges occurred, the teacher can never categorically state what the error really is for he or she does not know the *intentions* of the learner (Corder, 1981). Secondly, because we are here dealing with skills of interactive behaviour specific to the target culture (C_2), it is crucial that the teacher be seen *not* to impose his/her ethnocentric notions upon the learners. Doing so could erect an "us/them" barrier that may inadvertently reflect the harsh socio-political realities of the world beyond the classroom. Thirdly, the co-operative effort engendered by the communal contributions further welds together the sense of community and supportiveness that is central to this methodology. Fourthly, through the careful eliciting and echoing that characterizes counselling strategies, students often recognise thair own errors and engage in self-correction, which is highly motivating. Fifthly, the learning that occurs is firmly embedded in a solid and known context; it is not theoretical, nor remote from the learner. Based on their own experiential encounters, the learners are engrossed in the context, not one step removed from it. Lastly, there is the "hidden curriculum" of actually conducting the lengthy analysis stage in the target language, a process itself characterized by much interactive exchange. In a sense, the medium becomes the message.

Repairing a Text

Using the technique described above it is possible to achieve the total reconstruction of learner-produced language. The counselling strategy of eliciting intended meaning (as shown in the Sophia example) is employed to rebuild a text that originally had broken down in communicative terms. An example is the following.

It begins on the subject of tennis.

Tiina: You play tennis?
Joseph: Oh, sometimes.
Yolanta: I like playing tennis.
Tiina: Are you good in tennis?
Yolanta: I like water skiing.
Emilia: Oh!!! Water skiing!!!
Yolanta: I love water skiing.
Tiina: Are you good in tennis?
Yolanta: Oh, I can't judge it! (laugh)
Tiina: Buy you can....
Yolanta: I can play and I like to.
Tiina: Water skiing with two skis or one?
Yolant: One and two.
It doesn't matter.
Emilia: Oh!!! You ski one! That's fine!!

Discussion in the analysis phase focussed on the frustrated and unsuccessful attempts of the Finnish learner, Tiina, to achieve her communicative intent; as well as on the peer irritation caused by her dogged efforts which were expressed in the "flat" tone characteristic of the "idiosyncratic dialect" (Corder, 1981) of the Finnish learner of English.

Working slowly through the text, eliciting intentions and responses each step of the way, using the combined knowledge of the learners (knowledge of their own intentions!) and the teacher (expert knowledge of the appropriate forms that realise these intentions in L_2) gradually the text is created step-by-step. Each step of the way, meaning is *negotiated* and nothing finalized without the assent and affirmation of the learner. Changes affect grammatical construction as well as intonation and stress (not indicated in text here). The enterprise is inherently co-operative and enlightening.

Tiina: Do you play tennis?
Joseph: Oh, yeah, I do occasionally.
Yolanta: I really like tennis.

Tiina: Are you any good at it?

Yolanta: (not hearing) I like water skiing as well.

Emilia: Really? Wow, that's great sport!

Yolanta: Yeah, it really is.
I really like it.

Tiina: You know, I've been looking for someone to teach me the rules of tennis 'cause I'd really like to play.
Yolanta, you'd know the rules would'nt you?
Are you any good at tennis?

Yolanta: Oh, yeah, I'm not bad.
I've been playing for quite a long time you know.

Tiina: So you'd know the rules then?

Yolanta: Yeah, sure.
I'll explain them to you if you like.

Tiina: Thanks, that'd be great.
You said you weren't bad at water skiing.
I've heard some people actually ski on only one ski.
What about you?

Yolanta: Oh, either one or two.
It sort of depends what you feel like on the day, you know.

Emilia: Wow! You mean, you really can ski on one ski!
That's terrific!
You must be really good at it!

My own experience of transcribing and analyzing students' recordings has uncovered the finding that almost any chunk of learner-produced language can serve as an effective vehicle for heightening socio-cultural awareness among the participants when the principles of counselling learning are employed to this end. Below are some three further examples that serve as evidence of this thesis.

The Art of Hedging

In the first example, a Chilean man, Julio, is the central "protagonist". It is Monday morning. Julio's classmates are demanding an explanation for his absence from the student party the previous Friday. The socio-cultural issue this time pertains to the conventions surrounding the avoidance of embarrassing questions, including the giving out of and acknowledging of cues between participants in a conversation.

Jose: Julio, please tell us, what happens to you?

Julio: Um, you...mm...talking about that. (fade out)

Santok: Were you alright last Friday?
We did not see you at party...we missed you very bad.
We have been, we were angry with you.

Julio: Angry?

Santok: Because we always love you, to have here among us but
you did not come last Friday, we were angry with you.

Jose: How come you didn't come on Friday?

Julio: Oh, um, you know, um–laugh–um–someones you–
well, sometime–um–there are many things to do, um.

Inga: And you did not come on Tuesday too, didn't you?

Julio: Well, this looks to me like a confession (laugh)

Santok: Confession! (laugh) No! No!

Julio: (laugh)

Inga: You are supposed–supposed to come every day.

Julio: Well, yes.

Santok: We don't expect a confession from you.

Julio: Did you have a good time on Friday?

Santok: Friday? Oh very good.
We wish you were with us.

Julio: Ah, thank you. um. But next time we'll be all together.

Inga: There will be no party any more next time.

For his own personal reasons, Julio is disinclined to answer his classmates' questions; and he tries politely, diplomatically, and with good-tempered humour to deflect their questions and hedge around their "digs". They, however, are oblivious to his signals and persist relentlessly in the inquisition. The discussion that arose from the transcript focussed on techniques of deflecting and hedging, and examined both productive and receptive skills: the giving out and the correct de-coding of the appropriate cues.

A Continuum of Appropriacy

In the follow-up sessions which offer more controlled practice of issues raised in the analysis phase, the lessons focussed on a "continuum of appropriacy" in response to a question deemed "not in order". One controlled prompt was, "How much do you earn?", and the hierarchy of rejoinders decided upon was the following (in an ascending order of "confrontationalism"):

1. Use "fillers". For example, "um", "well", "you know", "sort of'...., as a delaying strategy or as a cue to topic change.
2. Convert to joke. For example, "not enough", or "the taxman sees most of it".
3. "Return the ball'.. For example, with a related question that tactfully changes the subject e.g. "isn't the cost of living going up?", or "that reminds me...." which signals a change of direction.
4. Casually shrug off the question. For example, "Oh, I don't want to talk about that...."
5. State directly and more formally that you don't like the question. For example, "I'd rather not discuss that, if you don't mind".
6. Embarrass the questioner. For example, "How come you're so interested?!"
7. Aggressive direct rejoinder. For example, "That's none of your business!"

Clearly this cline of responses cannot simply be presented to the learner. The cline *emerges* through negotiation and discussion; and all the contextual determinants are known or are made known to the learners: the context of situation, the personal and functional tenor of discourse, the setting and all other items relevant to meaning. This includes understanding of phonological factors such as intonation, pitch and volume, (see, for example, Loveday, 1982, on pholological slurring rules in informal contents), as well as paralinguistic and proxemic patterns. The learner cannot simply be handed phrase-book, audio-lingual style formulae and helped to memorise them. Such a "graft-like" approach, into which much functional teaching easily degenerates, is no better than the traditional linear structural syllabus that, historically, it was designed to replace.

Conversational Ping-Pong

Our second transcript centres on a Polish learner, Jan. The field of discourse is the discussion of individual cooking habits.

Renata: Are you? I think you're single–you have to cook sometimes?

Jan: Yes, I have to.

Renata: Can you?

Jan: Yes I can.

Jan K: Doesn't he enjoy cooking or doesn't have enough time to cook? Doesn't he enjoy cooking?

Renata: Not really.

Jan: Quick dishes.
I don't like spending time in the kitchen.

Nilly: For instance, steaks?

Jan: Ah, steaks, eggs, all those quick stuff.

Van Tot: And you have to live on sandwiches all the time.

Jan: No I don't like sandwiches.

Nilly: Don't you? I can live on sandwiches.

Jan K: What do you eat then?
What do you eat then?

Jan: Ahh.....I like eggs.

Nilly: Eggs.

Jan: I like steaks, lots of salads–different salads.

Renata: For how many people do you cook?

Jan: Ah, usually one...Just for me or maybe my friend.

Nilly: And you cook every day?

Jan: No everyday....because I'm going out a log....always....so I usually eat in my friend's place.

Nilly: Oh, that's very nice.

What emerged from the analysis phase was a discussion of the television–interview nature of this conversation, which was meant to be a common exchange among equal participants, and not an interview with a central "persona". Jan responds to questions exclusively on a propositional or ideational level, ignoring the phatic elements of the interpersonal function. Out of socio-cultural ignorance (his L_1C_1 has different rules), Jan failed to play the conversational ping-pong that would be appropriate here. Discussion of the reactions of his peers exposed that some of them found him aloof, self-centred and arrogantly disinterested in those around him: e.g., "he wanted *all* the attention and he showed no interest in us".

Failed Encounters

Another procedure that serves as a way in to promoting socio-cultural awareness through the CLL methodology, is to provide a topic for the initial taping phase. This can be designed loosely as a way of predicting and determining the sorts of socio-cultural issues that will arise. Such a topic can be quite specific, or very broad: the following transcript emerged from the topic "failed encounters" where learners talk about and record situations in their experience where, as it were, their English "let them down". Often of course, it is not their English *strictly speaking* but their socio-cultural awareness that is to "blame".

Miron: A similar situation I had yesterday when I was looking for this heater.
I was very hurry because it was, very short of time before closing shops.
So when I went to one of the stores and I didn't find anything good, anything cheap enough I just went to out and shop assistant asked me to open my bag to see if I haven't stolen anything.
I don't want to do it but I was....It was really stupid situation.
I really wanted to tell her that what I'm thinking about such matters but I had neither time, neither I have no good methods to explain her about it. I just wanted to tell her just ring for policeman. I mustn't show you everything what I have....but I just give up.

Ines: and also....

Ricardo: Did you try and say nasty things to her?

Miron: Only in this country....only in this country

Ricardo: Did you feel like saying nasty things to her or swearing at her?

Miron: Oh, it was not pleasant I must say.

Ricardo: I know but such a situation you always, you know, you feel like saying....

Miron: It happens, it happens very often in here but it was very strange.

A recording session with an emotive topic (such as the one here described) is bound to be resonant with a great deal of hostility, frustration, and anger, as students try to articulate their feelings of helplessness and powerlessness in situations where their English, as one learner once put it, "just vanishes". The subsequent reflection phase, in such instances, is crucial; and learners' freedom to talk (*without* being recorded) should not, for psychological reasons, be curtailed.

Discourse Rules

In order to be able to exploit the CLL methodology as a vehicle for awakening socio-cultural sensitivity in the language classroom, the teacher needs as an indispensable reservoir, a knowledge of the discourse rules of the language being taught. He or she needs to make conscious and explicit and "teachable" what as a native speaker he or she already knows subliminally. What would be of enormous pedagogic value here is something akin to Keller's supra-concept of "gambits" (1981), an umbrella term for conversational strategy signals and cues that facilitate and lubricate interactive discourse. Ideally, a taxonomy of such socio-cultural rules and conventions should inform the teaching practice of a CLL practitioner. Calling on such a taxonomy as a backdrop, as it were, and focussing on the actual texts produced by the learners, the teacher can cover a range of socio-cultural issues that are of direct relevance to the learners and of importance to their potential acculturation.

Some Warnings and Concluding Remarks

It should not be thought that CLL is being promoted here as the universal panacea of language teaching, ideal for all conditions, all teachers, and all learners. There are not inconsiderable shortcomings and pitfalls in the methodology; and it has provoked heated discussion in pedagogic literature. There is not the space here to attempt to counter the criticisms that have been raised, merely to refer to some of them in the form of questions. Doesn't the learner have too much freedom in the taping phase and too little in the analysis phase? Isn't there too much pressure to produce? Isn't the structuring of knowledge in the last resort the domain of the teacher? How do you justify the time spent? What about *other* language needs? Isn't it too open-ended? Isn't it dangerous? Doesn't it require specialist training in "non-teaching" skills, like counselling? Doesn't it ignore the question of the learner's preferred learning style? Wouldn't it over-tax the teacher and hasten professional burn-out?

These and other questions have been raised as words of protest or caution in response to the methodology; and without doubt they hold considerable validity. As a gesture to counter such criticism, the following could be stated in favour of the approach. It is an experientially-based and learner-centred program in which the learner assumes responsibility for his or her own learning. The materials of the classroom are personalized and individualized and hence highly motivating. Language is firmly embedded in a context of situation and culture both of which are made explicit and known. It functions as a valuable diagnostic tool for group dynamics and facilitates a positive and communal learning environment. It highlights individual remedial areas. It appeals to both cognitive and affective domains. However, by far its most advantageous and alluring feature is its facility for promoting an integrated culture-in-language approach to learning. It is with the need for and value of such an approach that this article has been centrally concerned.

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Learner Problems in Self-Access Learning: A Case Study

Sorani Wongbiasag

Self-access learning is a learning approach in which the learner is allowed to make decisions on each step in his learning process, that is, on what to learn, on how to learn it, and on how to evaluate his own learning. This approach has been essentially supported by two major trends in language teaching and learning, namely the trend towards the sharing of the learning responsibilities between the teacher and the learner, and that towards individualized learning. A self-access centre for language learning has been established at Mahidol University in order to encourage Thai students to take up self-access learning. Its original aim was to promote extensive reading. Later on, the aim was extended to cover other areas of language skill practice, for example, listening and writing. It was felt that the students did not make the best use of the services available at the Centre. An investigation was conducted to find out the students' problems in self-access learning at the Centre. Two types of problems were found: those resulting from external factors, such as the management of the Centre, and those concerning the students themselves, such as their lack of confidence. The findings suggest reconsiderations in terms of curriculum and syllabus and in terms of learner and personnel training for more effective future planning.

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Introduction

Self-access learning is a learning approach in which the learner is given opportunities to

- decide what work he wants to do;
- find the material to fit his purpose;
- work through the material at his own pace using his own style;
- correct or assess his answers;
- evaluate his work when desired.

(Scott 1984, Sturtridge 1982)

This does not mean that the learner is left alone with all the responsibilities for his own learning. He can always get assistance from the teacher or from his friends when he requires it. The teacher, then, plays a crucial role of being a facilitator of the learning process, a consultant or a resource person rather than a classroom authority or an arbiter of classroom activities (Tumposky 1982).

If, by definition, a self-access learner is to find material to fit his own purpose, this means, first, that the material must be accessible to the learner himself. The materials must be arranged in such a way that the learner can tell whether a particular lesson or package fits his purpose. This can be done in the form of a card-catalogue system, similar to what is usually done in any library. Also, the learner must have physical access to his or her materials. The materials should not be kept out of reach or under lock and key. Finally, he must be able to do the learning activity and assess his own performance (Geddes and Sturtridge 1982).

In general, self-access materials are provided in a learning centre, which can be a corner of a room, a whole room, or a unit of rooms. It is, however, not necessarily so. In many cases, self-access learning can be conducted in regular classrooms and self-access materials can be used along with the traditional classroom textbooks. As a matter of fact, it is suggested that the traditional classroom setting may be necessary or advisable for certain self-access activities[1], or as a means of training the learner toward a self-access learning goal (Dickinson 1982, Windeatt 1980).

Background Principles

Current directions in language teaching and learning can be characterized by several features (Morley 1985), two of which may be relevant to self-access learning. They are: (1) a focus on learners

> as active creators in their learning process, not as passive recipients; and (2) a focus on the individuality of learners and individual learning styles and strategies. (p.1)

The former feature shows the trend towards the sharing of the learning responsibilities between the teacher and the learner. Allwright (1978), for instance, comments that, in attempting to handle all classroom responsibilities by himself, the teacher runs the risk of creating frustration, wasting time and spoon-feeding the students in class. He, then, suggests ways of involving learners in classroom management. Littlejohn (1983) shows evidence of the learner's increased motivation when they are involved in the management of their own learning.

The latter feature characterizes what has been called the learner-centred approach. This approach recognizes the differences among individual learners in terms of learning goals, styles, rates, expectations, experience, and interests. As a result, the learner is to be given opportunities to choose only what he thinks is appropriate for himself (Littlejohn 1985).

These two main features constitute the major rationale for self-access learning. This is further reinforced by the growth in educational technology and the fundamental educational goal, which is to learn how to learn (Rogers 1969: 103).

The underlying goal in self-access learning, then, is to give the learner an opportunity to be responsible for his own learning, to choose what is appropriate for himself, to learn how to learn, and to develop his own learning styles as well as his self-confidence.

A Case Study

An example of a self-access centre which has been established for Thai students is Mahidol University's Self-Access Centre for Language Learning located on the Salaya Campus. The Centre was set up in November 1982 by the Department of Foreign Languages, Faculty of Science, Mahidol University, with an aim, initially, to encourage Mahidol students to do extensive reading. This aim was based on the belief that "a learner will not become a proficient reader simply by attending a reading course or working through a reading textbook. For every hour of intensive reading, a learner should be doing at least another hour of extensive reading" (Williams 1986:44).

The first component in Mahidol's Self-Access Centre, therefore, was the Reading Laboratory, consisting of SRA graded readers (Parker 1969), paperback books, and references such as dictionaries and encyclopedia. Those who made use of the Centre were mainly first-year Mahidol students, most of whom lived on campus.

About a year after the Reading Laboratory was established, a listening component was added to the Centre. Due to lack of space, there were a limited number of listening booths. The listening materials available at the time were basically what the students used in class. Other than in-class materials, English songs were available on cassettes on a loan basis. The services offered for listening practice at the Centre were quite limited at this experimental stage.

More changes took place in the middle of 1984 when a decision was made to move the Centre from its previous location to the Central Library. The Centre was expanded not only in terms of space but also in terms of services. The aims were extended to cover both educational and recreational aspects of learning. The Centre's services were intended to offer the students opportunities to learn on their own, to take more responsibility for their own learning, to develop their own learning styles, as well as to spend their free time in a leisurely but useful way. In addition to bringing in a greater variety of reading and listening materials, then, the Centre's staff introduced new components such as Games, Word Building Activities, Puzzles and Thinklab (Weber 1976). Various activities such as monthly riddles and seasonal displays were organized alternately. Film and video shows were occasionally provided with the cooperation of the University's Audio-Visual Department. A German corner was also established as a part of the Centre.

The Centre is now in its fifth year and is still operating. It covers about one-third of the third floor of the Central Library. It seats 160–180 people at a time. Its hours are from 8:30 AM to 4:30 PM Monday through Friday. The staff consists of a group of teachers from the Department of Foreign Languages, who volunteered to work because of their interests, and an assistant. Actively involved in materials preparation and activity organization as they are, these teachers, who also teach first-year students at Salaya, have not been able to make themselves available for learner consultation at the Centre, due to time constraints. The assistant's responsibilities are mainly non-academic, that is, to open and close the Centre at the specified time and to look after the hardware and the software in the Centre.

The Centre's major clients are still first-year Mahidol students at Salaya. English is one of their compulsory subjects to fullfil their fundamental six language credits. Their regular English classes meet 4 hours a week for 15 weeks per semester. All of the students have been assigned readings in SRA graded materials outside of the regular class time. Their reading abilities are tested, using these materials at the end of each semester. Some of them take German as a non-credit elective.

The students have access to the equipment and the materials in the Centre (except for the video tape and recorder). The Centre service that they make the most use of is the SRA reading material. Reference books and listening materials come second and third, respectively, in terms of frequency of use. (For details on the students' use of the Centre, see Wongbiasaj 1986).

Both the teachers and the teacher-organizers felt that the students were not making the best use of all services available at the Centre. In spite of the fact that the students were forced by the SRA assignment to do self-access learning at the Centre, they did not seem highly motivated to go to the Centre. It was anticipated that there might be some demotivating factors associated with the Centre or with self-access learning as a whole. An investigation into the students' problems in self-access learning at the Centre seemed necessary at this point. In addition, after the first five years of operation, it was felt that an evaluation of the Centre's services was needed so that future plans and directions could be set for the Centre. A survey was, then, conducted to collect information necessary for the planning and the improvement of the Centre's work.

The Survey

The survey was mainly aimed at investigating problems and constraints that may obstruct or impair the running of the Centre as well as the organization and implementation of self-access learning in general. Part of the survey focused particularly on learner problems in self-access learning at the Centre. It aimed to find out why the students were not motivated to go to the Centre. Only this part of the survey is discussed in this article. The research question relevant to this part was:

What are the problems the learners have in conducting self-access learning at the Centre?

The learner problems were investigated from three different angles: from the learners' points of view, from the teachers' view points and from the teacher-organizers' perspectives. Therefore, the investigation involved 3 groups of subjects: a group of first-year students of the Faculty of Science, Mahidol University as Salaya, a group of teachers who taught these students, and the teachers who organized the self-access learning at the Centre. The first group were 269 in all (comprising 153 females and 116 males) constituting 23.74% of all Mahidol First-year students. They were selected through systematic random sampling. The second and the third groups consisted to 6 and 8 teachers, respectively. They formed the total population of the subjects.

The instrument used with the learner group was the questionnaire. Its preparation started in February 1986. The questionnaire was piloted in July 1986 and was group-administered to the learner group all at one time in the second week of August (which was the 9th week of a 15-week semester during the first term of 1986.) The questionnaire was administered in the second half of the semester to give the students opportunities to familiarize themselves with both the Centre and the self-access approach. In the questionnaire, the students were asked to decide if an issue being raised was a problem they found in self-access learning at the Centre. And if it was, they were also to rate the degree of seriousness of the problem on a five-point scale. The final section of the questionnaire was an open-ended question asking the students to specify other problems that they had in self-access learning at the Centre. The data from the questionnaire was processed using the SPSS program. The reliability of the questionnaire was found to be 0.81 (alpha model).

Structured interviews were conducted with the teacher and the teacher-organizer groups during the 1st and the 3rd weeks of August, which were the 8th–10th weeks of the semester. (For details of the content and the preparation of the questionnaire and the interview, see Wongbiasaj 1986).

Findings and Discussion

The problems the students had in conducting self-access learning at the Centre were found to be of two main types: those concerning the management of the Centre and those concerning the students themselves (e.g. their study load, their attitudes, etc.).

The former type of problems will be called the external problems since they seem to have arisen from factors external to the students. The latter type of problems, on the other hand, seem to have come from the students themselves and thus will be called internal problems. The external problems are shown in Table 1.

Table 1: Mean Scores Showing Problems Concerning the Centre Management From Learners' Viewpoints*

Problem	Mean Score (X)	Standard Deviation (SD)
1. the Centre's lack of publicity	3.84	1.21
2. unavailablity of teacher-consultant at the Centre	3.31	1.22
3. inconvenient hours	3.19	1.46
4. inadequate lighting	3.12	1.42
5. insufficient amount of equipment	2.85	1.38
6. insufficient amount of material	2.84	1.40
7. damaged or incomplete material	2.54	1.19
8. complicated material content	2.33	0.97
9. uninteresting material content	2.17	1.04
10. inadequate space at the Centre	2.10	1.19
11. noise from outside making it hard to concentrate	1.93	1.09
12. uncomfortable atmosphere	1.89	1.09
13. damaged equipment	1.89	1.02
14. out-dated equipment	1.68	0.94
15. inconvenient location	1.66	1.04
16. inconvenient arrangment of the plate	1.58	0.88
17. too much material in the Centre	1.47	0.73

N = 263 (only those who had used the Centre's services at least once during the specified semester)

*from a five-point scale ranging from 1 meaning 'the issue being raised is not a problem to me' to 5 meaning 'the issue being raised is a very serious problem to me'. It is taken that an issue whose mean score is over 2.5 constitutes a problem that is worth considering.

Table 1 shows that what the students found to be the most trouble some of all the external issues was the Centre's lack of publicity, which resulted in their missing opportunities to participate in the Centre's activities (X = 3.84). This was followed by the problem of having no teacher-consultant at the Centre to give help when necessary (X = 3.31). The next two problems, which received approximately equal ratings, were the inconvenient hours and the inadequate lighting (X = 3.19 and 3.12, respectively). The problems of not having enough equipment and materials were ranked at about the same level of seriousness (X = 2.85 and 2.84, respectively). The students also specified in the questionnaires that the equipment and the materials which were found to be insufficient in number were mainly tape recorders and tape cassettes. Other issues, such as those concerning the atmosphere of the Centre, the space and the arrangement in the Centre, were regarded as constituting slight problems by the students.

The students' responses were mostly confirmed by the information collected from the teachers' and the teacher-organizers' interviews. When asked what they thought would constitute problems for the students in using self-access learning at the centre, both groups gave the following ranking.

Table 2: The Teachers' and the Teacher-Organizers' Viewpoints on What Constitute Learner Problems Concerning the Centre Management*

Issue	No. of responses	
	Teachers	Teacher-Organizers
1. lack of publicity	4	3
2. lack of teacher-consultant at the Centre	3	4
3. insufficient amount of equipment and material	3	4
4. damaged equipment and material	2	5
5. inconvenient hours	1	6

N of Teachers = 6
N of Teacher-Organizers = 8

*The issues raised by the two groups were 24 in all, only the top five of which are presented in this table.

Table 2 shows the 5 items that received the most attention from the teachers and the teacher-organizers as being potential causes of learner problems concerning the Centre's management. It should be noted that the 5 items from the teachers/teacher-organizers' perspectives, as shown on Table 2, coincide with all but one (item 4) of the first 7 items of the students' list, as shown on Table 1. This may mean that the learner problems had been known to either the teachers or the teacher-organizers or both to some extent. The inconvenient hours, for instance, were mentioned by most of the teacher-organizers. They seemed well aware of the demand to have the Centre to stay open after 4:30 PM and also during weekends but administrative constraints, such as lack of budget and personnel, were mentioned. The same answers were given in response to demands for more equipment and for a teacher-consultant to be permanently stationed at the Centre. The problem of lack of publicity, however, did not seem to be very well known to the teacher-organizers. Less than half of the group realized that it constituted problems to learners in self-access learning. The teachers, on the other hand, tended to recognize the importance of publicity. Two-thirds of them reported having introduced their groups of students to the Centre and having shown them how to use the SRA readers. This, however, was probably not enough. The teachers suggested having a formal orientation at the beginning of the semester as well as ongoing public announcements concerning the Centre activities throughout the year. Lack of publicity was believed by the teachers to be the main factor for the students' low response.

The second type of problem, the internal factors, had to do with the students themselves. The students reported the following information in the questionnaires.

The mean scores of the items in Table 3 range from 1.55 to 2.93. This shows that the students regarded these problems as being less serious than those of the external type, which were shown in Table 1. The data in Table 3 does not seem to show that the students hold strong negative attitudes toward self-access learning, as they did not rank the issue of lack of trust in the effectiveness of the approach very high on their internal problems list. What the data seems to show is that there may be a large number of students who were not ready, mentally and technically, for self-access learning, especially when it is done in English. The first item on the

Table 3: Mean Scores Showing Problems Concerning the Learners Themselves*

Problem	Mean Score (X)	Standard Deviation (SD)
1. Being weak in English, I don't think I can do self-access learning in English effectively.	2.93	1.29
2. I don't know what problems I have in learning English so I can't help myself.	2.87	1.31
3. I would like to try self-access learning but don't know how to start.	2.86	1.34
4. I have such a heavy study load that there is no time for extra hours of language learning.	2.63	1.26
5. Without a teacher to check the answers, I don't know if I am right or wrong.	2.58	1.26
6. I don't understand the instructions on the cassette or worksheet.	2.56	1.14
7. I can't find cassettes or worksheets that I want at the Centre.	2.55	1.28
8. I don't trust self-access learning to be an effective way of learning.	2.53	1.09
9. I am not used to studying by myself without teacher's supervision.	2.25	1.20
10. I can't train myself to concentrate outside the classroom.	2.02	1.18
11. I don't know how to operate the equipment at the Centre.	1.55	0.73

N = 263

*from a five-point scale raging from 1 meaning 'the issue being raised is not a problem to me' to 5 meaning 'the issue being raised is a very serious problem to me'. It is taken that an issue whose mean score is over 2.5 constitutes a problem that is worth considering.

list seems to suggest that the students may, to a certain extent, suffer from lack of confidence. This is not likely to have come from unfamiliarity with the self-access learning approach itself, as the unfamiliarity did not seem to be the students' major problem (item 9, X = 2.25; item 10, X = 2.02). As a matter of fact, many of them must have been through a lot of self-study sessions when they studied for the entrance exams. Their lack of confidence may have come from having to perform in a second language. This point is supported by an informal talk with a couple of students, who admitted that they got nervous and insecure everytime they had to follow instructions in English. It is also supported by the fact that some students, due to lack of confidence in themselves as well as in their friends, preferred teacher correction to self or peer-correction (Wiriyachitra and Wongbiasaj 1986). Self-access learning may be less appealing to students who lack confidence in their use of English.

On the technical side, the students reported that they were unable to identify their problems (X = 2.87) and they did not know how to start self-access learning (X = 2.86). These procedural and technical problems were unexpected, considering their claim that they were quite familiar with self-study. It seems unlikely that, with such familiarity, the students still have not mastered the learning techniques necessary for self-study. A more likely explanation is that they have mastered the self-study techniques in other subjects (e.g. science, math, car-repair, gardening, etc.) using the first language but these techniques may not be readily transferable to the second language self-access learning (Dickinson and Carver 1980). If this is the case, the students need to be taught techniques for second language self-access learning, such as how to identify their own problems, how to set their learning objectives, how to choose appropriate materials, and how to evaluate themselves. An alternative explanation for the students' unpreparedness is that the techniques the students have mastered in the first language may be transferable, but the students may not have been aware of the possibilities of transferring them to second language self-access learning. If this is true, they need to be made aware of such possibilities.

Apart from the problems of being mentally and technically unprepared, the students reported that their study load was one of the obstacles to self-access learning at the Centre (X = 2.63).

Hidden behind this problems is the widely-accepted view that for most of the science-oriented students at Mahidol University, language learning always comes last on their list of priorities. Since they usually had heavy schedules and difficult subjects to study during the day, by the end of the day, they did not feel like going to the Centre to learn a not-so-important subject, such as English. Of all the problems the students reported having, this may be the most difficult to deal with because it involves not only negotiations with subject-teachers to rearrange the students' schedule but an attempt to convince the students of their future potential language needs as well.

Implications for Future Planning

The results of the study seem to suggest the needs for those in charge of self-access learning at Mahidol University to reconsider three important aspects.

Reconsideration in terms of the first-year general curriculum and the English syllabus

As has been mentioned, one of the obstacles to the students' use of the Centre was their regular study load. If they were to spend more time on self-access learning, the study load simply must be reduced. This implies changes in the first-year general curriculum. Another major point is that self-access learning is not necessarily done for language learning only. It can be applied across the curriculum. That is, students can be encouraged to use the self-access approach in learning other subjects as well. This may result in better understanding of the significance and the usefulness of self-access learning in the students' life. Moreover if self-access techniques are transferable from L_1 to L_2, the cross-curriculum application will render the students better skill practice.

Another point that deserves an emphasis is that self-access learning is not necessarily done at the Centre, independently of regular classroom learning. As Basil (1985:100) suggests,

> Self-access combined with classroom teaching provides an opportunity for learners to meet some of their individual language needs and gives them an introduction to self-directed learning.

For students who are unfamiliar with the procedure, or who suffer from lack of self-confidence, self-access learning at the centre, combined with classroom training, may be the most appropriate approach. If self-access learning is to be integrated with regular classroom sessions, several changes must be considered. The English syllabus content, for instance, must include self-access learning techniques as well as language forms and use. The content scope should be flexible to allow the students opportunities to choose according to their problems and needs. Also, the teaching techniques must be adjusted, for the student must be given the opportunity to participate in and to share responsibility for their own learning. The teachers may have to reduce their classroom control and try to encourage more learner involvement. The assessment techniques and the grading system may also need to be modified. Success in using self-access techniques needs to be measured (if it is measurable at all) on a par with language accuracy and fluency.

Reconsideration in terms of learners

It is obvious from the results of the study that the students needed training in order to handle self-access learning effectively and efficiently. As a matter of fact, in general, there are very few students who come equipped with all self-access learning skills (Holec 1985:10). The kind of training Mahidol students needed can be divided into two types: technical and psycho-social. This, again, coincides with what Holec suggests. The former type of training includes helping the learners to identify their own individual problems, helping them make decisions at various stages of the learning process, and helping them with their own evaluation. The latter type of training ranges from encouraging the learner to commit themselves to helping them modify their conception of learning (Holec 1985).

Reconsideration in terms of personnel

As a result of the need to give help and support to the learner, a teacher-consultant is an inevitable component in a self-access centre. This point is supported by the fact that Mahidol students regarded lack of a teacher-consultant as one of their most serious problems in using the Centre. As the teacher-consultant's functions require delicate and specialized skills and knowledge (Cousin 1982), he or she, too, needs to be trained. On-the-job training may also be necessary for classroom teachers in general, for, as has previously been mentioned, their classroom roles need to be changed radically. Their training has to include both technical and psycho-social aspects. The latter particularly is essential, for, as Holec states, "the teacher, like the learner, has to modify his conception of the teacher's role, which means that he too is susceptible to the psycho-social problems which such a change brings about" (1985:14).

Another group of personnel that may need an orientation, if not specific training, to the self-access learning conception is subject-specific teachers and administrators. Such an orientation can come in different forms ranging from a formal seminar or conference to an informal getting-together with the language teachers. These people need to get a better understanding of the self-access learning approach if they are to give support and encouragement to the students and the language teachers.

This is neither an easy nor an overnight process. It also corresponds with the suggestion that self-access learning should be an integrated part of regular classroom teaching.

Conclusions

In this study, two types of learner problems were found: those resulting from external factors such as the management of the Centre and those relating to the students themselves such as their technical unpreparedness and their lack of confidence. The latter type of problems can certainly be dealt with by giving the students some training, which may mean an integration of the Centre's work with classroom teaching. Learner training, however, is not the sole solution to the problems, since a full-scale self-access learning program requires cooperation across the curriculum. Long-term, wide-scope training is needed for all parties concerned because self-access learning involves a modification of the conception of learning, especially for those who hold on to the belief that learning is the teacher's business, not the learner's.

NOTES

[1] Carver and Dickinson (1982) suggest a list of self-access activities which can be done in class so that teachers who are interested in self-access learning approach "...can work towards the promotion of self-direction within the conventional school framework" (p. 143).
Some of these activities (e.g., self-correction, pairwork, groupwork, project work) are not new to most language teachers. Other (e.g., trouble-shooting, use of pupil-teachers) are less familiar and may be more challenging.

[2] Several suggestions on techniques for training students towards self-access skills (e.g. identifying their own problems, setting their learning objectives, record-keeping, self-correction, self-rating) have been given in, for instance, Dickinson and Carver 1980, Carver and Dickinson 1982, and Geddes and Sturtridge 1982. The psycho-social training, on the other hand, has not been extensively dealt with in the previous literature. This may be because this type of training is more subtle and has a lot to do with the individual student's personal characteristics, such as their age, their cultural background, and previous learning experience. Also, it may be advisable to think of the two types of training, technical and psycho-social, as being integrated rather than as two separate components.

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Widening Our Horizons Through Creative Counselling

Robert Paulet

What?
Is the systems approach a thing of the past?
Is the past a thing of the now?
Must we solve today's problems with yesterday's tools?
Are we only concerned with the how?
Is the future so tame that we need just to claim
Our solutions are there in the sky!
Or do we believe, to continue to breathe,
That we need to begin asking why?
(Lemons, 1984)

Counsellors have traditionally supported and challenged clients to maximize their potential in a variety of settings. Recent changes in technology and attitudes to adult education will expand the opportunities for counsellors to assist individuals taking distance education courses in isolated communities. Professionally trained individuals, however, will have to become familiar with a unique delivery system and must be willing to share their responsibilities with a new team of professional helpers. This article will examine some of the exciting opportunities and depressing realities in this area by focusing on the needs of adult distance learners; selected case studies of student service operations in Canada, and England; and technology currently used to provide counselling and support services to distance education students.

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Many educators have considered counselling and related support services an indispensable part of traditional campus-based post-secondary education. However, in distance education, counselling and student advocacy are only beginning to be recognized as an important part of the educational experience of the learner. Representatives of many distance education institutions contend that their goal is to promote an attitude of independence. To reach their goal, they develop learning packages which enable students to work on their own, with a minimum of contact with the educational institution. Unfortunately, as Dan Coldeway pointed out, "most students lack the experience to adapt readily to a totally andragogical system" (1982:91). Dedicated instructors expend vast amounts of time and energy devising learning packages which will allow students to become completely independent of teachers and other students. They appear to have forgotten the importance of the social aspect of the learning experience. At the university level, the pursuit of this ultimate achievement of instructional designers is not only futile but misdirected. It is vital that the concept of a university as a community of scholars–in distance education studying as external students–must be maintained. As Smith and Small stated, "external studies will, by definition, continue to be essentially a form of independent study but should never be a sentence to solitary confinement" (1982:137).

Let us shift our focus from the challenges relating to the learning system to those relating to the type of learner that typically takes distance education courses. Studies have shown that the majority of distance learners are adults (Paulet, 1985). While it is true that many adults are self-sufficient, many are not. Their most recent educational experiences typically may be part of their distant memories. They generally have a greater variety of educational backgrounds which ranges from less than high school graduation to a university degree. They are not familiar with distance education. Their study skills, if they exist, may be rusty or inappropriate. Usually, they are part-time distance education students working in a variety of full-time activities. Consequently, they are constantly forced to choose between dealing with the demands of their studies and a host of other pressing demands in their environment.

Like all students, they approach educational institutions with a goal or aspiration in mind. Morgan, Taylor and Gibbs (1982) identified three main types of orientation to study (personal, vocational, and academic) which alter the ways students view their studies. Student satisfaction may be greatly affected by their ability to obtain courses and programmes that fulfill their prior expectations.

Students may be plagued with a variety of problems unrelated to course selection. Many are concerned about difficulties with administrative considerations, such as examination systems and course content, design, and deadlines.

Having established that the students need a support service that can personalize and humanize the distance teaching system, let us examine the role of the counsellor in serving these individuals. This examination will focus on the challenge to counsellors and the opportunities available to flexible professionals establishing their rights and responsibilities in this new medium of service.

Counsellors are aware that the nature of their service is dictated, in part, by the employing institution serving the client. Distance learners require current information related to opportunities available throughout the entire post-secondary system, for example. course registration, intake dates, and final examinations. Students in many isolated areas are frequently required to make arrangements for their own examination supervisor or proctor.

Educators continue to disagree on the definition of counselling and the role of the counsellor. There is clearly an overlap between advising and counselling both in the skills required of staff who perform these tasks and the purpose of each function. Both advisors and counsellors help students cope with their environment and acquire self-understanding. However, there are a number of significant differences and these peculiarities are relevant to the distance learner.

Currently, advisory services are more prevelant in distance education programs than are counselling services. Advisors typically help students request information in such areas as program alternatives, financial aid, and so on. Advisors tend to be more problem-centered whereas counsellors are person-centred, developing confidence and helping the student make personal choices.

In general, educational institutions have been reluctant to hire counsellors to work in the distance education setting despite the fact that adults learners face many personal and social problems when they return to education.

Although counsellors are rarely hired to work in distance education programs, a number of successful institutions have developed a variety of student support services. The nature of these services frequently depends on funding, organizational structure, and philosophy of the institution. Brief summaries of how selected institutions have developed creative ways of helping students are described in the next section.

A distance teaching institution which is part of the network of the University of Quebec, Tele-universite, has developed a unique staff role, the *animateur* (facilitator). He or she organizes workshops for small groups of students to serve a specified region (Caron, 1982). The animateur may also be asked to support students participating in teleconferencing. Unlike a tutor, the animateur is usually a non-academic specialist.

Community representatives (peer-counsellors) at the University of Western Ontario provide information and support to off-campus and distance education students. These modestly paid individuals perform the following duties:

(a) discuss problems of university courses with students;
(b) pass on information concerning the academic channels and contacts on campus;
(c) share personal experiences regarding managing university courses or programs with students;
(d) help identify strategies for academic planning;
(e) give the faculty of part-time and continuing education feedback on issues that relate to off-campus centres;
(f) act as an ombudsman between student and Part-Time Continuing Education.

Athabasca University, serving over 8000 working adults in all parts of Canada, has developed an elaborate support system. The Alberta institution employs about 160 part-time tutors who assist students with course content. They also help the student maximize his or her potential educationally and personally by providing information and support.

The Open Learning Institute (OLI), instituted by the British Columbia government in 1978, (serving approximately 15,000 students) has no counterpart to the Athabasca University counsellor role. The emphasis in the advisor role at OLI is on information-giving, academic advising, liaison and promotion, and administrative activities. About 120 tutors were hired on part-time six-month contracts and 8 tutors were retained on part-time 12-month contracts. Working from their homes, they maintain regular contact with students through the mail and by telephone. While they are only required by contract to initiate one introductory telephone call, most tutors make at least three calls during a course. Teleconferencing is used by some tutors to reduce the sense of isolation felt by students.

While Brandon University has been involved in distance education delivery for only three years; it is well recognized for its off-campus teacher training programs in Africa, England, and Canada. The B.U.N.T.E.P. program (Brandon University Northern Teacher Education Program) with its regional coordinators has been studied by many universities. The P.E.N.T. (Project for Native Teachers) program received the most distinguished teacher training award program in North America in Florida in 1983. Counselling and support services are available in the well-recognized programs in the university and need to be developed for all other distance learners at Brandon University. A student in the B.U.N.T.E.P. program can receive counselling on a regular daily basis if necessary as each B.U.N.T.E.P. centre has a specially trained coordinator or centre administrator as well as access to a regional social worker and administrative support staff. The P.E.N.T. student can also request counselling by phoning the P.E.N.T. office in Brandon. Other distance learners must be content with asking a secretary to relay a message to their instructor. Students trying to receive assistance have also been frustrated by the disconnection of the only answering service set up to serve them. The removal of a free telephone line for students in Manitoba made it more expensive for students taking guided independent study courses. Some recent attempts have been made to improve the support system. Weekly phone calls from the instructors and regular teleconferencing sessions have proven useful. The student services office has agreed to relay messages and provide some telephone and personal counselling services for students interested in distance learning. There are plans to list the courses in the Brandon University Calendar so that potential students in Northern Manitoba can be aware of available distance education courses through the traditional channels. A recent study (Paulet, 1985) has indicated that students are satisfied with the instruction and the quality of the print and audio-visual packages. They requested additional local and group telephone counselling sessions. The study also showed that the request for education courses is more than 300% higher than the previous year. One can only imagine how high this figure would have been with additional support services in place.

The next best thing to being there, is counselling through technology! While there is a growing interest in providing student support services through the use of technology; these services in distance education are delivered primarily through print, telephone, and in-person contacts.

Authors try to make their print materials "user friendly". Students taking OLI's PREP 001 course receive self-administered diagnostic tests and programme planning information on such topics as study skills and examination preparation.

While some institutions use audiocassettes as a vehicle for communication between the tutor and the student (for example, Waterloo), most institutions use audiocassette tapes to supplement and enrich the print learning package. Feasly (1983) pointed out why they are gaining in popularity. Audiocassettes have several advantages: they are readily available, relatively inexpensive, portable, and students can stop and replay them at will. On one Athabasca University tape, designed to provide advising and counselling services, four students registered at the University talk about their experiences as adult distance education students.

The telephone is used a great deal in distance education because it provides fast, effective communication links between students, tutors, advisors, administrative staff, and counsellors. However, the effective delivery of tutoring and counselling services by telephone requires excellent communication skills. The following factors, identified by Mikiman (1984) should be remembered by all counsellors working with distance education students:

> the counsellor (and tutor) has to rely on auditory cues such as voice tone, tempo, and inflection; voice quality and speech attributes; and language syntax and semantics in order to initiate and enhance communication effectiveness in telephone contact (p.407).

A number of universities in Canada use audio, video, and computer teleconferencing. Carl (1983) described the DUET (Distance University Education via Television) system at Mount St. Vincent University in Nova Scotia. DUET uses cable television and video teleconferencing to deliver both distance education and to support students by providing the opportunity for interaction amongst students at the receiving centre and interaction with the instructor at the broadcast classroom. He also pointed out that the broadcast classroom contains speakers for the telephone lines so that the instructor and students on campus can hear and speak with the students at the receiving centres.

Effective counsellors are aware of the importance of empathetic and congruent communication with their client. Counsellors have developed the ability to avoid the superficial and to explore the hidden and real message. Only truly creative counsellors will be able to effectively use computer conferencing, broadcast television, and videotex to provide support to distance learners.

Counsellors have an opportunity to enhance the educational opportunities of adults struggling to maximize their potential in remote and isolated communities. They can help schools reemphasize the basics, as well as expand the traditional three Rs to include communication, higher-level problem-solving skills, and scientific and technological literacy. Indeed, now is the time for counselling distance education students in a technological world!

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Bright Ideas

Five Mini-Activities for the Language Classroom

Peter Duppenthaler

I have used the following mini-activities with great success. Students find them to be both challenging and interesting. Most only require a few minutes and are ideal as quick "pick-me-ups" during a lesson or as rousing endings. Because they are all designed to be completed within a relatively short period of time (usually within 5 minutes), they can be used a number of times without students becoming tired of them. Most are flexible enough to be used with students individually, in pairs, groups, or with the class as a whole–a real advantage in mixed–ability classes. In addition, the use of these activities encourages cooperation among the students and helps to develop a sense of class spirit. Although designed for teaching English, they can be easily adapted to the teaching of other foreign languages.

1. Next in Order

How many times have you asked a student for the day of the week and then watched him or her mentally tick off the days in order until he or she gets to the right one? This often happens with younger learners but even many advanced or older learners tend to follow (although less obviously) this method. "Next in Order" is an interesting way to review the alphabet, the days of the week, and the months of the year. In addition, it serves to alert students to the dangers of only being able to arrive at Z after having first silently gone through the entire alphabet from A to Y.

Begin by asking the students to tell you the days of the week (months of the year or letters of the alphabet). Then, tell them that you are going to say one of the days of the week and you

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want them to tell you what the next day is as quickly as possible. Demonstrate a few times by saying something like, "I say, 'Monday' and you say...," and then begin. As soon as they have the idea, speed up and move out of sequence (e.g., Teacher: "Monday," Students: "Tuesday"; T: "Friday," S: "Saturday"; T: "Wednesday," S: "Thursday"; and so on). Keep it moving as fast as you can. Students should not be given enough time to run through the series. Imagine a ticking metronome with you saying the name of a day on "tick" and the students giving the next day on "tock." Stop after a couple of minutes and either go on to ask for the previous day (or month or letter of the alphabet) or save this for another day.

2. *Pronoun Practice*

The proper use of pronouns always seems to be a big problem. This mini-activity is designed to give your students a lot of quick recognition practice. As with the other mini-activities, it can be used a number of times, and in this particular case, the more the better. This means that you will have to be sure to limit the activity to a few minutes at any one time. The vocabulary can be changed as needed (i.e., to include new items or to review particularly troublesome ones). Simply make up a list of nouns (be sure to include both singular and plural), read each noun, and ask the students to say either "he," "she," "it," or "they," depending on which fits the word. For example, if you say "man" the students (as a class or individuals) should say "he." Be sure to write the words out (developing a small card file is ideal) before you come to class. You have to be able to say the words one after another as quickly as possible in order to maintain the pace this activity needs to be interesting. The following is a sample list to get you started: hand, fingers, man, book, pens, nephew, sister, woman, park, niece, children, uncle, cousins, women, mother, father, husband, grandfather, feed, nephews, table, hammer, foot, car, truck, women, homes, trees, golf, child.

3. *Eat/Drink/Wear/Use*

This mini-activity is a variation on "Pronoun Practice." The procedure is exactly the same. However, the students must now tell you if each word fits into the "eat," "drink," "wear," or "use" category. Again, the list should be adjusted to fit your students' levels and needs, but speed is important in maintaining interest.

As in "Pronoun Practice," say the word and have the students answer with the appropriate category. The following is a sample list: meat, fish, hammer, clock, pen, hat, shoes, tea, milk, door, poultry, food, dictionary, boat, ham, fingers, brain, coffee, lights, socks, belt.

4. *Larger/Smaller*

This mini-activity is a simple way to review numbers. Again, speed is what makes it interesting, especially for advanced level students. This means that you will need to prepare you list of numbers in advance. Say any two numbers and ask the students to tell you if the second number you said was larger of smaller than the first. Pairs like 13/30 and 12/20 are always interesting. As a variation, you might want to try the same activity using pairs in which a cardinal number is paired with an ordinal number.

5. *Count the Words*

English spoken at normal speed by native speakers usually comes across as just a blur of sound to beginning ESL/EFL students. Here is a mini-activity to help your students make some sense out of that blur. Say any short sentence (maximum of 10 words, no contractions but do use reductions) that is well within your students' ability to understand if it is written out for them. Say it at normal speed and with normal intonation, and ask them to tell you how many words there are in the sentence. You should say it as many times as they require to get the correct number of words, but always at normal speed. They do not have to be able to tell you what you said, just the number of words. It sounds like a simple thing to do but just think back to when you began to study a foreign language. It is a great way to start training your students' ears and to give them some confidence in their ability to make some sense out of what they hear.

Newspaper Summaries: An Integrated Skills Activity

Max Mayer

Introduction

In the field of ESL/EFL, there has been much discussion in recent years on the topic of productive and receptive skills and strategies. A good deal of reasearch on productive skills has been carried out (see Faerch & Kasper 1983) but the area of receptive skills has only recently been looked into in any concrete way. This is an area which is becoming increasingly important for second language learning, especially in Japan. As teachers we can help students to find more effective receptive strategies as well as presenting them with notions, functions, and rules. Receptive strategies help students to manage communication and to have some degree of control over the L_2 input they receive.

An activity which I have found to be very useful for presenting students with the opportunity to work on receptive strategies and practice communication management skills is oral newspaper summaries. This activity integrates reading, listening, speaking, and academic skills, such as note taking and summarization. The student presenter stands in front of the class and, with the aid of a worksheet, presents his or her summary to the class. During the summary, the other students are encouraged to interrupt the speaker, ask questions, and request clarification. In essence, the speaker comes to understand that it is his or her "responsibility" to present information accurately and the listeners realize that they must "get" the information completely with all that this entails.

Objectives

The students with whom I am using these summary exercises attend classes 18 hours a week. They are pre-university students desiring entrance into Temple University Japan or possibly another American university. They are enrolled in the Intensive English Language Program of Temple University which prepares them for university by teaching them the linguistic and study skills which they will need.

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Besides the development of communication skills, this activity has several other objectives, the first of which is to encourage students to build up the habit of reading in English. It is difficult to say which skill is the most important for success at the university; they are all important. However, the influence of reading on developing competence in writing and building vocabulary has been documented (Krashen 1984). A second objective is for students to concentrate on correct pronunciation during the presentation. In my experience, Japanese students of English have a tendency not to enunciate clearly with the result that the listener often has difficulty understanding what is being said. This exercise forces the speaker to speak clearly so that the listeners are able to understand the content of the presentation.

There seems to be a consensus regarding how difficult it is in Japan to get students to ask questions, or to interrupt for clarification, in general to take control of communicative situations in any meaningful way. As mentioned above, the most important objective of this activity is to train students to manage communicative situations in English, and to equip them with the language and skills they need to control the flow of information they receive. In order to encourage my students to do this, they are told that they will have a quiz on the content of each presentation. A part of the preparatory work for the summary activity is to give the students the gambits (or functional phrases) they will need in order to control the communicative situation so that they can understand the information being presented. There are gambits for both speaker and listener (see appendix, Fig. 1). For lower level students, it is advisable to do preparatory activities in which they can practice using the gambits. Examples of such activities are: 1) having students present summaries in small groups before giving the presentation to the entire class; 2) doing information-gap activities; 3) giving instructions which require students to ask for clarification, repetition, and so on. Since the students know they will be tested on the material, they begin to ask the speakers to slow down, to speak more clearly, and to explain the meanings of new words.

Procedure

The first thing I do is to relate to the students the need for reading. I usually ask if they read the newspaper or any magazines or books in English. At most levels here in Japan, the answer is "no." I then explain that they need to expand their vocabulary and begin reading in English to prepare them for the reading they will have to do in university. I tell them that English newspapers are readily available in Japan, and that they should take advantage of this opportunity to read regularly. Next, I tell them that I would like them to begin reading articles in the newspaper. The articles which I want them to read are short narratives which are usually on the first few pages of the paper. I explain to them at this time the different sections of the newspaper and the different focus that each deals with. Since one of the purposes of the exercise is to get them into the habit of reading; to start them on editorials or political comments at this time would only reinforce their negative feelings about reading. Therefore, the students are told to stick to the smaller news reports at the beginning of the paper. Subsequently, I assign each student a particular day of the week to give his or her summary. Depending on time constraints, I usually do two to four summaries a day. If classes are small and meet often enough, students can give more than one summary a week. As was previously mentioned, it is advisable to do some preparatory activities with lower-level students. I do a model presentation, one that I have prepared. I present it to the students as I expect them to present theirs to the class. After the summary, I ask if there are any questions. This is a crucial point in the process. If the students do not ask me any questions I will then arbitrarily pick one or more students to tell me what I have just summarized. In most cases they will not be able to relate back to me specific points of the summary. I then ask the students why they are not able to give me back the information. Possible answers might be "I did not understand you," "You spoke too quickly," "I didn't understand some words." I will then show them the necessity of stopping me at those points when they do not understand something and asking for clarification or stopping me from speaking too quickly and so on.

The next step is to give the class a summary sheet (see Appendix, Fig. 2) which contains several questions to guide them through the summary. When a summary is presented to the class, it is this sheet that will be used and not the original newspaper article. This work sheet keeps the students from simply writing fully copied paragraphs.

Before the first summary is given each day, I mark off a special space on the black/white board for new vocabulary. If, during the course of the presentation, listeners ask the presenter to explain a new word, he or she is required to write this word on the board. It is also the responsibility of the presenter to be able to explain the definition of the word. If her or his explanation is not sufficient, I will interject and try to help define the word. Students are required to use appropriate gambits to interrupt the speaker when they do not understand what is being said. This forces both listeners and speakers to be aware of the need for clarity during the activity. The speakers are also stopped when pronunciation has passed a critical point where meaning has been lost. In addition, when ideas are vague, questions must be asked for clarification.

In the beginning the activity is usually awkward and confusing for the participants, both speakers and audience. At this point, it is *essential* that the teacher intervene frequently because there is usually very little communication management on the part of the students. Initially the teacher is the facilitator for both speaker and listeners. The role of the teacher as facilitator gradually diminishes as students become aware of the necessity for negotiating meaning. After a few weeks, a rhythm is set and both listeners and speakers begin to get involved. The teacher's role then becomes minimal, and he or she becomes more of a monitor of the proceedings. However, the teacher will always have to maintain close vigilance on the proceedings as students sometimes tend to lapse into old habits if not constantly reminded of the need to maintain their responsibility in the process.

Once the rhythm of the exercise has been establish, the whole procedure runs quite smoothly. I have used this activity with students who met for 4 hours a week and am presently doing it with students who meet for 18 hours a week. In both contexts, the groups arrive at a point where they really are controlling the communication, with both listeners and speakers actively involved.

A further useful exercise is to have the students take notes during each summary. After the presentation, the teacher takes each student's article and summary sheet and when several summaries have been presented, a quiz is given on the content of the summaries. Students are permitted to use their notes during the quiz. Since the students know there will be a quiz, they realize the necessity for taking good notes and asking questions. It is important that students also be tested regularly on the vocabulary which crops up during the summaries. There are usually 2–3 new words per summary.

Conclusion

What is interesting about this activity is the authenticity of the exercise for the students, as well as the integration of several skills. Reading, speaking, and listening are all utilized in one task which at the same time both supports and reinforces the confidence of the students. Of course most students are nervous in the beginning, but it is up to the teacher to make them realize that the whole process is helping them to speak and understand English better and that the classroom environment is a supportive rather than a threatening one.

An important point is that within a short time the presenters focus on their own language output; they begin to understand that they have a responsibility to the listeners and that they must make themselves understood. The listeners, on the other hand, begin to realize that they are responsible for understanding the information which is being summarized. They see the language as it is, something to be used to convey information, not studied for its own sake. They realize that there is an interaction between the speaker and the listener which can be controlled and utilized to comprehend the information being given. This latter area of commmunication management is of the utmost importance for my particular students. Training them to become active participants in the learning process is crucial for their success at the American university to which they are planning to go.

APPENDIX

(Figure 1)

Expression Sheet

Remember when you give your summary in front of the class to be sure that you are speaking clearly, loudly, and pronouncing your words correctly. You should have looked up all new words in the dictionary and be able to explain the meaning of them to the listeners. Have good eye-contact with the listeners so that you can see if they are listening to you or not. You can stop at times to ask them if what you are saying is being understood.

When you are listening to the speaker give his/her summary be sure to stop him/her if you do not understand a word, or if he/she is not speaking clearly or loudly enough.

Below are some expressions which you can use to interrupt the speaker or ask if people are understanding what you are saying.

Listener Expressions

1. Excuse me, can you repeat that, please.....
2. Sorry, what did you say?
3. What was the last word you said?
4. I'm sorry I didn't understand you, can you please pronounce that more clearly.....
5. Can you speak more clearly, slowly, loudly.....
6. Sorry, you are speaking too quickly.....
7. What was the *1st, 2nd, 3rd* word, please?
8. Could you please repeat that whole sentence.....

Speaker Expressions

1. May I begin?
2. Can I start?
3. Are you ready?
4. Did you understand what I just said?
5. Am I speaking too quickly?
6. Do you want me to write ____________ on the board?
7. Do you want me to spell ____________?
8. Are there any questions?

(Figure 2)

Summary Worksheet

Student's Name

Title of Article: ____________________

Source of Article: (Name of newspaper)

Date of Article: ____________________

Please answer the following questions concerning the article you have just read and will use for your presentation in class. If a question is not relevant leave it blank. Use one or two complete sentences to answer the questions.

1) What is the main idea of the article?

2) Who is/are the main person/persons in the article?

3 Where did/will the events in the article take place?

4) When did/will the events in the article occur?

5) What were the effects of the events in the article?

New Vocabulary

1.
2.
3.
4.

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Bringing News Articles into the ESL Classroom: Speeding the Acquisition of Comprehension Skills

David O'Reilly and Virgil Palmer

Introduction

Often overlooked but ideal as an ESL tool, newspaper articles can speed the acquisition of language skills. Typical news articles that appear in every English daily newspaper offer valuable instruction to upper basic to advanced level students. They can serve many purposes in the classroom and are, in essence, language paradigms. If an instructor is aware of the basic structure and its classroom potential, the efficacy of using newspaper articles as a teaching tool is enhanced.

Pre-reading

Articles are typically written for a ninth grade reading level. They can therefore challenge the abilities of upper basic students of English and are also appropriate for advanced students. Sentences are kept simple as is the choice of words. This is axiomatic; journalists are taught that fewer words are better, and that a simpler, shorter word is preferable to a larger, less familiar one. Further, the structure employed, known as the "inverted pyramid," dictates that the most important information comes first. This allows students to understand the main idea and most important points of this form of communication without reading the whole story.

An additional benefit in using newspaper articles lies in the transfer of skills as they naturally occur. What began as a reading comprehension exercise leads to vocabulary building and discussion and listening practice that are completely student-generated. Confidence is gained which encourages students to take more responsibility; thereby resulting in more student-centered learning.

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When teaching Japanese students of English, it becomes appearent that learning and comprehension often stops as soon as an unknown word is encountered. This results in frustration for both the student and the teacher. Since communication depends on more than the verbal component, i.e., facial expressions, body language, contextual elements, etc., such regressions and lapses take on a greater significance than they actually warrant. For this reason, it behooves the teacher to spend an adequate amount of class time preparing the students for this specialized reading task. This is especially true in conversational English classes where the focus is on the verbal rather than the written component. Students of conversational English are usually adults whose school days are in the distant past, and probably have forgotten the reading skills acquired then. Therefore, these students have the greatest need of prereading preparation to ensure that this experience does not end in frustration.

The 5 W's and the Inverted Pyramid

Reporters are taught that their work is a craft and not literature to last for ages. They know, moreover, that native speakers with the most basic of reading levels should be able to comprehend the writing. Thus, news articles lack complex sentence structures, long paragraphs, and ambiguous adjectives which are so much a part of expository and academic writing. It is indeed English writing at its simplest.

But more importantly, a basic structure exists which, when recognized, makes articles even easier to understand, and makes them an invaluable companion to any ESL syllabus. Opposite and antithetical to academic compositional writing, the most important information of an article appears in the beginning, usually the first few paragraphs, save for "delayed leads," editionals, and critical reviews. The headline, lead sentence, and sometimes the first few paragraphs answer the 5 W's questions: who, what, where, why and when. The *who* of the 5 W's refers to who was involved in the newsworthy event, either as a participant, observer, victim, or other-otherwise. *What* simply refers to the subject or topic of the article, the event. The geographic location of the action or event is covered by the *where* question. *When*, the date and time of the event or action, is answered by the dateline or within the article. Finally, *why* usually refers to the importance of the action or event, the reasons which make it newsworthy.

Information and details of lesser consequence are then given in descending order of importance. Hence, this is the inverted pyramid of journalist reporting–it is an inversion of academic writing, where the most important part, the conclusion, comes at the end. There are, of course, variations on this theme depending on the publication or writer. For example, magazines are usually more expository in nature, and present more of a linguistic challenge, but the above is the classical construction employed in "nuts and bolts" journalism.

A final note on structure, it is common knowledge that reading an entire article is unnecessary for the reader insofar as the essential elements are concerned. In this way news articles parallel communication when linguistic ability is inadequate for total comprehension.

The Six Commandments

Before tackling a newspaper article, give students a set of guidelines. This will serve to bolster their confidence in comprehending unfamiliar written material. Any set of guidelines should include the following:

1. Skim

Skimming, or quick reading, provides a rudimentary idea of the article. Students never have enough time to read all the information available in a newspaper. Consequently, skimming enables them to select the more interesting articles and disregard others. Students should skim the page of a newspaper to answer the following questions:

Is this article interesting?

Should it be read in more detail?

What is the main idea?

2. Anticipate/Predict

The title of an article, together with any accompanying pictures, provide ample information about its content. Consequently, students should be encouraged to use them in making predictions about the article. This will add to the information gleaned from their initial skimming exercise.

3. Context

Context, or the situation of a word, provides clues to interpret its meaning. Dictionaries are often more of a hindrance than a help. Their use makes reading a painfully slow and boring task. Instead, students should use context to make educated guesses when confronted with unfamiliar vocabulary before resorting to a dictionary.

4. Main Idea

It is unnecessary to understand everything in an article. Encourage students to be content with the main idea rather than total comprehension. Otherwise they will spend too much time on trivial details.

5. Explanation Words

Students should be aware of explanation words such as: is a kind of; is used for, etc. These indicate that what follows in a definition of the preceding word or phrase and, therefore, aids comprehension.

6. Transition Words

Transition words, such as first, next, but, therefore, etc., give information about the organization of the article. They indicate that the following phrase or sentence adds to, contrasts, or concludes the previous statements. Understanding their use speeds reading and comprehension.

Context Clues

Perhaps the most important skills required and, consequently, those that require constant reinforcement and a disproportionate amount of class time, are the use of context and prediction/anticipation to understand unfamiliar vocabulary and situations.

Instructors must stress that communication is more than words, that understanding every word is not imperative. This is precisely where the use of news articles are most beneficial.

Students need to experience the wisdom of commandment #3 before they accept it. Consequently, a number of contrived exercises are usually necessary to demonstrate that these skills really work. One popular and useful lesson is the "Nonsense Article." The instructor writes a simple news article and inserts a number of nonsense words in place of key vocabulary. The context of the words, their form, the grammar of the sentence, and the students' personal experiences are employed to reduce the number of possible alternatives. In particular, students are told to take risks. They have to be willing to err, an especially important skill when transferred to the verbal realm.

At the outset the following "Hints" are given to the students:

Reading Hints

1. Use a dictionary only if a word is crucial to your understanding of the main idea.
2. Use the meaning of the other words in the sentence or paragraph and the meaning of the sentence or paragraph as a whole to reduce the number of possible meanings.
3. Use the grammar and punctuation of the sentence to give you clues about the relationship between words.
4. Sometimes you can ignore words completely; they may not add to your overall understanding of the reading.
5. Be content with a general idea of the word. The exact definition is not always necessary.

Divide students into pairs and instruct them to read the article and answer the questions that follow it:

POLICEMAN BANZIKED AT LOCAL SHILLIBOG

(API-TOKYO) A policeman was banziked last night when he tried to break up a violent agro between two ziffered men at a local shillibog.

The policeman was rushed to the city botschwain where he received 10 stitches to a large zunket about his eye.

Both men were later primsilled by the police and were charged with assault.

The shillibog owner said that the men had shallied about 10 bottles of sibble before the agro occured.

This is the third such agro at this shillibog in one month.

Police say that the owner had been warned not to sell sibble to ziffered customers.

Questions:

1. Circle the "nonsense" words and write their real meaning above them.
2. Explain how you guessed their meaning.

Article Shuffle

As a final preparatory activity, search for an article that conforms closely to the ideal form. Cut it into paragraph blocks and disarrange it. In pairs the students have to rearrange the article into its original form. To be successful, they need to pay close attention to the relationships between the groups of sentences and also use the skills for article reading. These relationships are indicated by transitional language that the students should recognize. Although a rather simple activity, it focuses the students' attention on the clues found within an article that aid comprehension.

Methodology

After extolling the principles of newspaper articles and the 5 W's, and impressing upon the students that reading and understanding every word is not a requisite, let the students choose an article from a current paper by skimming the front page. Advise them to select an article that is short, simple, and comprised of the news article framework. Satisfying these criteria is of the utmost importance. After selecting an article, have them work either individually or in pairs to analyze the article to answer the 5 W's questions. During the first exercise, it is usually a good idea to announce after the first few minutes that the headline probably answers the who and what questions.

Afterwards, have all the students discuss their ideas about the 5 W's as a group. Be sure to point out that the answers were probably found in the first part of the article, and that intensive reading of the latter part was unnecessary. The exception in some instances would be the 'why' question. Sometimes 'why' is so apparent that it is taken for granted and not mentioned; other times the further details given in an article account for the 'why' because the topic or issues are complex and resist an easy answer. This activity confirms the notion that comprehension does not require reading and knowing the meaning of every written word. Obviously, more than just linguistic exercise is derived here: it is also effective analytical practice.

Follow-up Activities

Using News Articles to Illustrate Numbers and Trend Language in Context

The above exercises and activities lend themselves to follow-up activities with secondary and tertiary effects that will reinforce the comprehension concepts previously iterated. For example, a good lesson for building up a student's ability to hear quantitative information is to use an article containing a lot of numbers and language indicating trends in the classroom. Simply make blank spaces where the figures and associated language, for example, "increased sharply", "stayed at the same level", or "plunged rapidly", occur in the selected article. Give the cloze passage to the students, and then either read it or play a tape recording of the article to the class. It may be necessary to read or play it twice. Even better would be a combination of the teacher reading the article, followed by a recording. Thus, students get the benefit of hearing two different voices. The main purpose of doing this activity is to increase the students' ability to aurally comprehend numbers and words which indicate trends. However, have them analyze the article in terms of the 5 W's before the first reading. This activity will strengthen the concept that knowing or comprehending every word is not a requisite for understanding the main idea and major points. They will become believers when they succeed at identifying the 5 W's despite possessing an incomplete article full of holes.

Newspaper Summaries

Teaching students to give oral presentations is a component of many ESL programs. One way to integrate the above skills with presentations is to have students give a summary of a newspaper article.

Students are instructed to choose a short article of interest. If the class level is advanced, articles may be of any length. However, basic to intermediate students often are overly ambitious in their selection of suitable article. This often leads to frustration and failure if their chosen article is too long or complex. Lower level students must be instructed to select brief, concise articles. Teachers can eliminate misunderstandings by assigning articles used by students in previous classes.

Following a formal model for making presentations, the students give their summary of the article's most important ideas as well as their opinion on why it is newsworthy. Again, students who have been trained to use the suggested reading and analytical strategies will have the capacity to transfer these skills to effective use during the presentation. Preparation time spent by the students will be better used, allowing them to focus more on organization and speaking skills and less on a misguided search for non-essential information.

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Book Review

MANAGEMENT ENGLISH. Zsuzsanna Ardo. Budapest: Allami Konyvterjeszto Vallalat, 1987. pp. 166.

Ms. Ardo has written a book for "upper-intermediate and advanced students of English as well as native speakers who are interested in practical management problems." Even a casual glance at most of the current textbooks indicates that her book fills a need for a more creative and humanistic approach.

Management English is an innovative book which uses a unique design and invitingly friendly composition to bring the language learner into active participation. Ms. Ardo has found a way to attract even the most jaded student who, at the upper-intermediate and advanced level, has probably seen a good many textbooks. Visually, it is a delight to the eye: it has witty illustrations; unusual typeface styles; drawings; and, a pleasing non-traditional format. For the advanced or upper-intermediate learner who has been exposed to various texts, it should provide a welcome change of pace. As a textbook for EFL students, or for native speakers studying business, it has much to recommend it. However, it is definitely not suited to lower level learners as it presupposes an advanced level of English.

Critics may feel there is a minimum of language taught in *Management English.* This is true if one envisions as necessary pages of grammatical exercises and stock phrases for each given situations. However, *Management English* is a book where language is put to use and expanded through practical exercises. Activities range from working alone to pairwork, groupwork, classwork, home study, and feedback. The variety of approaches within each unit challenges linguistic abilities, stimulates the intellect, and should elicit an enthusiastic response from both student and teacher. The book is designed for speakers and learners of English "who want to manage their lives with sensitivity and success." One stated aim is to build "co-operation and empathy." The author "assumes [that] a friendly, relaxed atmosphere" is necessary to promote this aim, which will ultimately lead to the "growth of mutual understanding." The warmth of the author and her awareness of how to involve the student in his own progress are evident from the first page.

The content is comprehensive and shows a clear understanding of, and an interesting approach to, management problems. Many management skills are discussed. Techniques are identified to make meetings more effective, including purpose definition and advance clarification of the purpose. As clarification is a skill all language learners are reluctant to use, its importance in a business situation serves to amplify the need to make it a part of all communication. Other management problems which are dealt with include: how to avoid turning your presentation into a disaster, time management, identifying your personality type for a more effective role in problem solving, using intuition and logic for decisions, and techniques for effective decision making. These techniques are as suitable to the effective management of one's life as to situations. The activities, both though-provoking and motivating, and student-centered so that the teacher can spend more time focusing on the students' performance.

Management English is comprised of fifteen units, a "Clues" section, and a unit key. Unit one begins with definitions. For example, definitions for the word "management" build on learner activities to increase vocabulary. It leads, quite naturally, to finding other definitions, fine tuning a composite definition, interviewing others on their ideas of management, and reporting findings. This is followed by "Food for Thought" and questions for reflection. Unit Two, "Why Work?," uses a mini-poll, pair work, work in fours as well as information gap activities. Almost all units have a "Food for Thought" section and in Unit Two it asks for a collection of the relevant qualities of an "Optimal Performer." This leads to a summarization activity which brings all of the previous work into perspective. "First Impressions" gives practical advice on the importance of appearances. Students conduct a mini-poll with fellow classmates and the teacher. A survey using agreement and disagreement and the defense of opinion is another part of this unit. Paragraphs requiring extraction of the essential information and summarization statements are also used. These are some of the most important techniques needed for advanced learners of second languages and, happily, they can be found in this book in a variety of activities. Subsequent units tackle topics such as "Your Resume," "Dressing for Business," "Presentations," "Time Management," "Problem Solving," and "Decision Making." Students using this book are, according to Caroline Bodoczky, Director of

Studies, Babilon Studio, Budapest, "developing their skills of discussion, persuasion, sales talk and logic" along with their study of English.

New vocabulary is built into each unit along with an introduction to idioms and their use in communicating between cultures. Extensive reading, a part of later units, sets up "priming questions" so the student focuses on the gist of paragraphs to extract important information. In each unit, the attitude is friendly and supportive to the learner, involving the human quality as well as interest in the technical aspects of language learning. The language used shows an in depth understanding of English, and the use of idiomatic expressions adds to its naturalness. In addition, it employs specially selected materials and charts from internationally known business publications, such as *Business Week, International Management*, and *Time*.

Management English can be used by a wide variety of students in many different situations and has the advantage of teaching language along with practical application to the students' future work needs. The principles of sound business management presented in this novel format will enhance the students' appreciation of the practicality of language learned in this way.

As a teacher who teaches these concepts in a business English format, I was excited at the prospect of using many of the activites found in this book. It may be chosen for use as a course book or as a supplement to other classroom material. For either of these purposes, it provides the student with a well thought out and interesting English for Special Purposes textbook.

Management English is used in conjunction with *Management English Listenings*, a workbook with "two audio cassettes of simulated authentic conversations and interviews with professionals and managers from a variety of cultural backgrounds." Unfortunately, these were not available for examination at the time of this review. As this is a pilot book, the author welcomes comments and provides a feedback questionaire in the back of the book for interested readers.

Ilene Kradin

Ilene Kradin is currently an English teacher/consultant at Japan Oxygen Company Ltd. in Tokyo. She has a B.A. in Fine Art from Montclair State College in New Jersy and EFL Certification from Gordon Seminar in Haifa, Israel. She has taught in the United States, Israel, and Japan.

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Announcements

BARCELONA SUMMER '88: MEDITERRANEAN INSTITUTE. July 4-29, 1988. This year's theme is "Professionalism and Research", courses for teachers of English to speakers of other languages. The Mediterranean Summer Institute includes courses in professional language teaching skills; innovative language teaching practices and new media applications; teacher training; and a wide range of research areas and techniques. For Institute brochure with programme enrolment details and further information, please write to: E.P. Mills, ESADE, Av. Pedralbes, 60-62, 08034 Barcelona, Spain.

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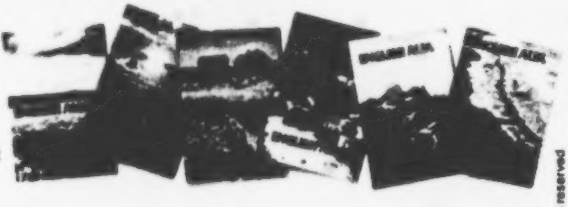

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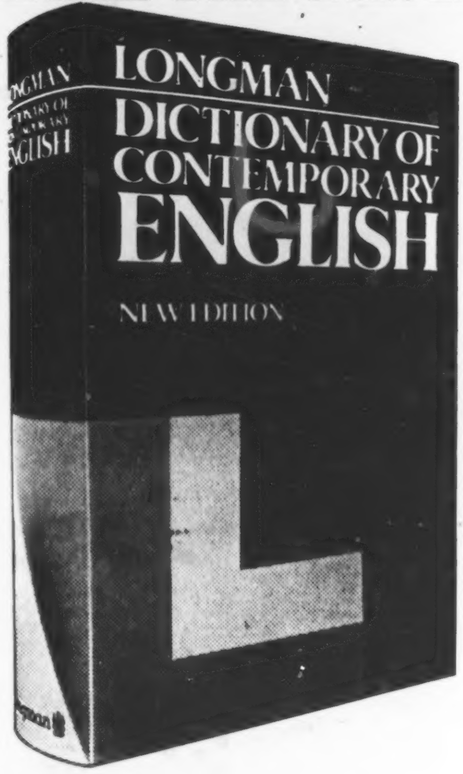

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ABOUT CROSS CURRENTS

Cross Currents is a semi-annual journal published by the Language Institute of Japan in a effort to contribute to an interdisciplinary exchange of ideas within the areas of communication, language skills acquisition and instruction, and cross-cultural training and learning. We are especially interested in articles on 1) Language teaching and learning, particularly regarding English as a Second/Foreign Language and English as an International Language; 2) Language teaching and learning as they apply in Japan; and 3) Cross-cultural communication issues. We also welcome reviews of recently published books in these areas.

Cross Currents was first published in 1972 with an emphasis on Japan and Japanese students of English. In order to better serve the needs of our growing international readership, we strive to publish articles concerned with teaching methodologies, techniques, and general issues which are multicultural rather than culture-specific. While we greatly appreciate theoretical articles which demonstrate thoughtful and significant research, the need for practical and highly readable articles of interest to classroom teachers remains paramount. We make every effort to include articles which are directly applicable to the classroom. Short practical articles are featured in our Bright Ideas section.

* * *

All articles submitted for consideration should be typed, double-spaced, and in triplicate, with references placed in the body of the text in parentheses with the author's last name, date of the work cited, and page number. Footnotes on substantive matters should appear at the bottom of the page on which the footnote occurs. Please include: 1) a paragraph precis of the article, 2) a short biographical sketch, and 3) a bibliography which should conform with TESOL Quarterly style. Manuscripts should be 5–20 pages in length. Manuscripts will not be returned unless return postage is included. Authors of articles accepted for publication will receive twenty reprints. Authors will retain the right to use the article in future publications, provided that *Cross Currents* is acknowledged as the original publisher; the author is expected to refer all requests to re-publish his or her work to *Cross Currents. Cross Currents* will not give permission to reproduce any work published here without the consent of the author.

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Summaries of the Articles

May God Increase Your Bounty: The Expression of Gratitude in English by Native and Non-native Speakers

Jean Bodman and Miriam Eisenstein

This article examines expressions of gratitude produced by native and non-native speakers of American English. Thanking can most appropriately be characterized as a speech act set incorporating semantic formulas, such as: compliments, prompts, reactions, and ritual refusals. Interlocutor relationships and socio-economic status are important variables that determine how thanking is realized. The acceptability of non-native expressions of gratitude is influenced not only by use of the appropriate lexicon, but also by prosodic features, length of utterance, and extent of directness.

Song and Music Techniques in Foreign and Second Language Classrooms

Dale Griffee

The role of music in society is briefly examined. It is noted that while music plays an important role in society, this interest is not reflected in TESOL. Six positive benefits of using songs and music are then examined and six techniques that reflect those benefits are explained. Each technique gives a context, preparation, teaching steps and possible extensions.

Measuring Communication in ESL/EFL Classes

James W. Tollefson

With increasing use of the communicative approach in ESL/EFL classes, teachers and administrators need a system for measuring the degree to which individual classes offer opportunities for realistic communication. This article describes how the Pre-Employment Program at the United States Refugee Processing Center in the Philippines measured implementation of the communicative approach in individual classes. The system of measurement is based upon a count of teachers' display and referential questions, and the

students' imitative and creative responses. Using data collected at the refugee centre, the article demonstrates that referential questions elicit creative responses, and that a high proportion of referential questions is a measurable characteristic of communicative language classes.

Hearing and Articulating /s/ in English and Japanese

Ronald S. Cairns

Japanese students have characteristic difficulty with a number of English sounds. The difficulties are often related to the influence of the student's mother tongue upon his efforts at aural recognition and articulation. This article deals with one such English sound, /s/, and attempts to explain the nature of the difficulty in so far as it is influenced by the student's first language, Japanese. It points out the imprecise nature of current descriptions of Japanese /s/, descriptions which have apparently influenced textbooks on pronunciation, and suggests that a more precise analysis of Japanese /s/ is essential if teachers are going to successfully teach English /s/ to their students. Based on the survey here presented of /s/ in the two languages, some practical implications for teaching are suggested.

Bright Ideas

I've Got Your Number: A Quantitative Information Exchange Exercise

Gary Fallow and Jim Cyborowski

Many students experience difficulties exchanging quantitative data over the telephone. In this Bright Idea, the authors present a simulation activity that allows students practice giving and receiving complex data in realistic telephone exchanges.

ABOUT THIS ISSUE

A variety of topics are presented in this issue of *Cross Currents*. The articles and Bright Ideas have been selected to create a mix of ideas which we hope will be of interest to our readers. This combination reflects once again one of the goals of *Cross Currents*: to balance the theoretical with the practical. In this issue you will find articles directly applicable to the classroom, as well as those which address cultural and cross-cultural concerns.

"May God Increase Your Bounty: The Expression of Gratitude in English by Native and Non-native Speakers," by Jean Bodman and Miriam Eisenstein falls into both of the above categories. This scholarly but highly readable article treats the challenge of cross-cultural communication in a socially sensitive area. It is relevant to classroom teachers of English as well as to researchers and curriculum planners.

An article by Dale Griffee, "Song and Music Techniques in Foreign and Second Language Classrooms," examines the relevance of teaching music in the ESL classroom. It provides a number of practical and detailed techniques for using songs in second language teaching, as well as outlining the benefits involved in doing so.

Today, as the communicative approach to teaching English is adopted in more and more classrooms throughout the world, teachers and administrators alike find they need a system to determine the degree to which communicative teaching strategies are being implemented. In "Measuring Communication in ESL/EFL Classes," James Tollefson describes a way to assess these communicative teaching practices in individual ESL and EFL classes.

Our final article, "Hearing and Articulating /s/ in English and Japanese," by Ronald Cairns, begins with a detailed study of a common phonological problem in Japan, the ability of Japanese students to distinguish and articulate the /s/ sound in English. Though somewhat theoretical in nature, it concludes with a number of useful suggestions to provide classroom teachers with practical ideas to help students overcome this problem.

In our Bright Idea for this issue, "I've Got Your Number: a Quantitative Exchange Exercise," the authors, Gary Fallow and Jim Cyborowski, present a detailed outline of a very realistic simulation activity which provides students with the opportunity to exchange quantitative data over the telephone.

This issue also includes a Video Review by Sherri Arbogast of the BBC English (Wendy Harris) production, "Muzzy in Gondoland," a fairytale which can brighten your ESL/EFL classes.

As most of our readers know, *Cross Currents* is sponsored by the Language Institute of Japan. At this time, we would like to welcome Robert Ruud, the new Director of LIOJ, on his return to Japan. Bob was Academic Supervisor at LIOJ from 1982 to 1984 and a frequent and articulate contributor to *Cross Currents.* We also have a completely new editorial staff now at *Cross Currents* and we hope that you, our readers, will bear with us as we find our way in trying to maintain the high quality of our publication. In upcoming issues the format of *Cross Currents* will be changing, both in physical layout and in terms of our goals. We hope to continue publishing the best of articles which deal with language teaching and learning, and to expand our focus in the domain of cross-cultural communication issues. We would, therefore, like to take this opportunity to encourage our readers to submit manuscripts on this topic. Finally, we hope to include a "Letters to the Editor" section in future issues. We invite your comments on past articles and welcome suggestions for upcoming issues.

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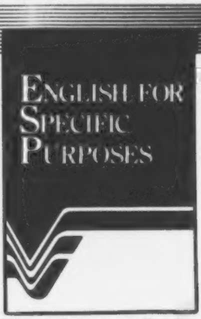

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May God Increase Your Bounty: The Expression of Gratitude in English by Native and Non-native Speakers

Jean Bodman and Miriam Eisenstein

Introduction

The expression of gratitude is a pragmatic function crucial in establishing and maintaining social bonds. An indication of this function's importance is its association in the minds of many native English speakers with politeness and good manners. Expressions of gratitude can range from simple, phatic utterances to complex, lengthy communicative events mutually developed by the giver and the thanker. Second language learners often assume that the expression of gratitude is universal and remain unaware of significant differences in its cross-cultural realization (Eisenstein and Bodman, 1986). Therefore, this function is particularly challenging for learners to perform successfully.

Background

Searle (1969), in his analysis of thanking as an illocutionary act, emphasizes the appreciation which the speaker wishes to convey to the hearer. Leech (1983) categorizes thanking as a convivial function whose goal is a polite and friendly social atmosphere. Both he and van Ek (1976) view thanks as expressing an emotional attitude conveyed by the speaker to the hearer. These theoretical

---

Jean Bodman, writer and consultant, is co-author of the ESL readers *No Hot Water Tonight, No Cold Water Either, Spaghetti Again?* and *Spaghetti Forever*, and the series *Milk and Honey*. She is a senior lecturer for the United States Information Agency in the areas of ESL methods and sociolinguistics.

Miriam Eisenstein is Associate Professor with the New York University programs in TESOL and Applied Linguistics, where she is involved in second language acquisition research and ESL teacher training. She is the author of *Language Variation and the ESL Curriculum.*

perspectives have been enhanced by the empirical work of Rubin (1983), who gathered natural data on the uses of the words, "thank you." In addition to gratitude, Rubin observed that "thank you" could convey other functions, ranging from responding to compliments to signaling the end of a conversation.

A study based primarily on written data (Eisenstein and Bodman, 1986), showed that advanced learners had significant problems expressing gratitude in English. Fifty-six native and sixty-seven non-native speakers of English were asked to respond in writing to a questionnaire that contained fourteen situations (derived from natural observation) requiring a varying degree of thanks. We then selected eight of these situations as most appropriate for further study (Appendix I). The natives, despite some individual differences, were strikingly consistent in their responses. The non-natives, when compared to the native speaker norms, were able to express gratitude in a native-like manner less than 30% of the time. They lacked control of syntax, lexicon, conventionalized expressions and routines. Even when we accepted non-native responses that were substantially incorrect linguistically, but conveyed the appropriate spirit and degree of gratitude, the non-natives were successful only 50% of the time. We felt the study was limited since we lacked evidence that written responses of our subjects corresponded to their natural language use. Wolfson (1986) has observed that speakers often have incorrect notions of what they say, so that consciously elicited data may differ substantially from the language revealed by natural observation. We also lacked information on the first languages of the students, making it impossible to assess the impact of transfer on second language production.

The Study

This paper reports on an extension of our earlier study to describe more fully how gratitude is expressed in English and other languages. We first administered a written questionnaire to speakers of a variety of languages in order to gain insights into how gratitude is expressed in these languages. This provided us with baseline data for considering the possibility of first language transfer among English learners. We then elicited data orally in English through spontaneous role-playing. Our corpus consisted of a total of 98 role-plays: 34 performed by native pairs, 40 by non-native pairs and 24 by natives paired with non-natives. We also tape recorded, whenever possible, and took field notes of naturally occurring conversations, containing expressions of gratitude. This helped us determine the extent to which the data that we had received earlier in written form were accurate reflections of the spoken language.

Results

Comparison of Data Elicitation Techniques

Our analysis revealed that the oral language used in role-plays and natural situations incorporated the same words and expressions that were elicited by the written questionnaire. In other words, our written data were indeed representative of natural language use, but were more limited. Analogous findings for refusals are reported by Beebe and Cummings (1985). They found that the same semantic formulas appeared in written discourse completion tasks and natural data.

In our data, for example, the following expressions occurred frequently in written, role-played, and natural data in response to receiving an unexpected gift:

This is just what I needed!

It's wonderful.

It's really nice.

Oh, you shouldn't have.

Yet, the role-plays and the natural data did more than merely confirm the written data gathered earlier. They gave us new insights into the functions of thanking and responding to thanks as they exist within a conversation. As Levinson (1982: 35) points out, "Conversational structure is now known to have its own elaborate architecture, and the functions that utterances perform are in large part due to the place they have within specific conversational sequences...." Levinson, however, thinks that utterances in transcriptions of recorded conversations can not be assigned speech sets in a "non-arbitrary way" – and "even if we could, [it] would tell us very little about how conversations actually proceed."

Our role-play data was both lengthier and more complex than responses in written form; and the natural data was, in turn, lengthier and more complex than the role-play data. When gratitude was expressed orally, there were many more restatements of thanks and discussions about the gift or the service performed. Beebe and Cummings (1985) also found a greater range of response in natural as compared with written data.

A sense of these differences between written and oral data was reflected in an elicitation procedure that we conducted previous to the undertaking of the current study. We administered the questionnaire orally by reading each situation to ten native speakers and taping their oral responses. The data was almost identical to that elicited from the written questionnaires. However, when we asked for the speakers' comments after the oral questionnaire, they said that they found the process awkward. Most indicated that although they were satisfied with their responses, they were sure that they would say much more in a "real" situation. We often recorded uneasy pauses. It seemed as though the subjects were waiting for someone to say something so they could continue. Fraida Dubin (TESOL Convention, 1983) has noted the same phenomenon with people using telephone answering machines. Often the callers did not know how to end their messages and waited awkwardly for responses in saying goodbye.

Aspects of Speaker Interaction

In our current study, our initial analysis revealed that an adequate description of how gratitude is conveyed must encompass the entire speech event and focus not only on the thanker but on the dynamic interaction between the giver and thanker. It was this interaction that accounted for the lengthy nature of the data alluded to earlier. We found that the expression of gratitude could best be characterized as a speech act set which may include a series of associated semantic formulas (Olshtain and Cohen, 1984).

In expressing gratitude, we found that the giver is as active as the thanker. The giver provides comments and prompts throughout the speech act set. The giver also reacts to the thanker to help that person carry out the expression of gratitude satisfactorily.

Notice in Appendix II, Dialogue 3 the comments which keep the conversation moving:

> That'll keep you warm.
> (possibly stating a reason for the gift's being given)

> It should be washable. Machine washable.
> (pointing out the qualities of the gift to help the receiver give appropriate compliments)

Examples of prompts can be found in Dialogue 3:

> This is for you.
> (urging the receiver to take the gift)
>
> Take it out.
> (urging the receiver to examine the gift)

Dialogue 1 contains an example of how closely the giver and receiver cooperate in performing this speech act:

> I hope it fits.
> (prompting the receiver to give needed reassurance)
>
> Oh, I'm sure it will . . . It's medium, I'm sure it will . . .
> (giving the reassurance)

Examples of reactions can be found in Dialogue 1 after the woman says that she can really use the sweater, the giver says:

> Good.

In Dialogue 3, the daughter begins to bring the thanking act to a conclusion by saying:

> Good. I'm glad you like it.

Comments, prompts and reactions all have the function of moving the thanking process forward to a conclusion satisfying to the giver as well as the receiver.

In several of our situations, we observed a speech act that we call "ritual refusal." When the gift, service, or favor is first offered, the receiver often chooses to appear reluctant or overwhelmed and profers a gentle refusal. In one role-play between native speakers when a $5.00 loan was offered the receiver said:

> Are you sure it's all right?

In another instance when a $500.00 loan was spontaneously offered, the receiver said,:

> Oh, I wasn't suggesting that *you* give it to me.

Some other examples of ritual refusals we encountered were:

> I wouldn't want to impose on you.
> Oh, I couldn't.

Ritual refusals occurred regularly in the role-plays of our native speakers. These refusals were distinguished by their apologetic tone and their lack of specificity. When non-natives attempted to use this kind of ritual refusal, they were sometimes too specific or used a tone that suggested their refusal was real. One native said:

> I feel bad about having to borrow money from you.

In the same situation, a non-native said:

> I don't want to owe money to someone else.

The giver has an important role in reassuring the receiver that it is all right to take. Notice in Dialogue 2, in seeking the $5.00 loan, Woman #1 says:

> Oh, no, I don't want to bother you.

Woman #2 reassures her by saying:

> Really, I have plenty. Believe me, you can have it.

(A summary of some of the possible roles of giver and thanker can be found in Appendix III.)

Native speakers' role-plays often lasted longer because they did not ask for favors or services directly. The need was suggested indirectly and negotiated after ritual refusals or expressions of reluctance to accept offers were made. Notice in Dialogue 10 how the second speaker never actually asks to be treated to lunch. However, the speaker presents the problem and pauses, providing an opportunity for the other interlocutor to offer a solution:

> #1: How about going out to lunch this afternoon? Are you free?
>
> #2: I'm free, but . . . I don't know. I just didn't take enough with me . . . .
>
> #1: Well, don't worry about it, I'll treat you.

Once the offer is made, it is followed by a ritual refusal, No, I don't want you to do that.

reassurance and a mention of repayment,

It's okay. It's my pleasure. Next time you can treat me.

and, finally, acceptance

Well, all right.

An additional example of this kind is illustrated in Dialogue 2. We call this kind of interaction the "hint-hint" routine. With native speakers this script (offer/refusal/insistence/expression of reluctance) flows quickly and easily.

It seems as though the act of giving or performing a service or favor for a friend or an intimate unbalances the social equilibrium. The giver, then, acts to help restore the equilibrium by downplaying its magnitude or importance. Gifts are sometimes presented by saying:

I have a little something for you.

When a person is treated to lunch, he or she might be told:

I hate to eat alone.

Thus, the receiver is often made to feel as if he or she is the one who is doing the giver the favor–not the other way around.

As we found in our earlier data, the length of the whole event was significant. The greater the indebtedness incurred by the gift, service or favor, the more profuse were the thanks that followed its receipt. The non-native speakers were not able or chose not to replicate this feature. Non-native exchanges were significantly shorter than the natives. Most of the time they were 50% shorter. In some cases, the non-natives appeared to lack the language to express themselves more fully. Notice in Dialogue 6, how awkwardly the non-natives search for the right thing to say. They do not sound like natives except in a few phrases:

. . . Oh, that's wonderful.
I really do like it.

By contrast, Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (1986) report that the advanced learners they studied suffered from excessive verbosity–in attempting to find the right words, they said too much.

Non-native students had particular difficulty with the situation involving the raise. They had trouble imagining what would be appropriate to say. In Dialogue 8, the two non-native speakers struggled to get through the role-play without its disintegrating completely.

In our first study, we had wondered whether the non-natives' tone or manner of speaking would override their lack of language and make the thanks more acceptable. We thought, perhaps, the students were not able to get the words right, but they might be able to compensate for this by "sounding" very appreciative. With the role-plays, we found, unfortunately, that those students who lacked fluency and had to search continuously for words, also spoke with a very flat tone. When native speakers were asked to judge these non-native samples, they stated that the non-natives sounded insincere. Those students who were more fluent had a more native-like tone and sounded like they were truly grateful.

It is important to note that there was a rhythm to the interactions of the interlocutors. In order for the gifts, favors or services to be offered successfully, a "script" needed to be followed, and each actor needed to know his or her lines well. As a result, there was a greater chance of a breakdown when two non-natives were interacting than when one member of the pair was a native speaker. The non-natives were able to perform better when they had the "support" of a native speaker.

Sometimes, when a favor or gift needed to be repaid, the thanker indicated an intent to do so. In some instances, like thanking a person after an enjoyable evening spent at their home, the repayment was left vague:

> We hope you'll come over to our place sometime soon.

We found that some non-native speakers were almost demanding in indicating their desire to reciprocate:

> Thank you very much for dinner. You will come to our house next week?

However, when it came to money, native speakers were quite specific about repaying a small loan:

> I'll pay you back Monday.

Interestingly, givers often responded by saying:

> Oh, that's all right. Don't worry about it.

as if to suggest that the repayment was not a matter of importance or urgency even though they may have placed great importance on being repayed promptly. For a loan of $500.00, some of the recipients mentioned an exact time for repayment. A student said:

> I'll pay you back as soon as I get money from my father.

A teacher said:

> I'll pay you back next month when I get paid.

In other instances, the recipient was less specific, but indicated, nonetheless, a sincere desire to repay:

> I'll pay you back as soon as I can.

Another interesting feature of the written and the spoken responses was the appearance of occasional jokes or attempts to lighten the occasion. Notice in Dialogue 1 the comment about the price tag:

> (laughing) Price tag in it?

and in Dialogue 6 the joking about the coming year and a red sweater:

> And so you can give me another sweater [next year]!
> (laughter) This time red, okay?

Notice in Dialogue 7, when the man tries to tease the woman by asking how she knew it was his birthday, she was stuck for a response. Here is a similar situation role-played by two native speakers; notice how the native handles it with an idiom:

> #1: I happen to know that it's your birthday today.
>
> #2: Oh, how did you find out?
>
> #3: Oh, a little bird told me. Anyway, I got you something . . .

In one of our native role-plays (designed to elicit thanks following an invitation to a dinner party), one native speaker deliberately manipulated the conventionalized script that called for an expression like, "I'll have to have you over sometime soon." Instead, the native speaker joked and said:

> I've had such a great time. You'll have to have me over again soon!

Blum-Kulka and Olstain (1986) note the need to distinguish between intentional and unintentional maxim violations. Jenny Thomas (1983) refers to such an intentional violation as a "flout."

Acceptance and Re-entry of Thanks

Let us turn now to the function of accepting thanks. We have noted that the giver must be careful not to close off the receiver's thanking too quickly lest the receiver feel that he or she has not adequately conveyed a sincere sense of gratitude. Interestingly, we discovered that it is ultimately up to the giver to control the length and to some extent the content of the thanks. When the giver feels that enough has been said, he or she usually signals the end of the function by the use of conventionalized expressions like:

> Good. I'm glad.
> You're welcome.
> It is/was my pleasure.
> Don't mention it.

Or in more perfunctory situations, "Thank you" is followed by "Thank *you*!" We found that the thanking episode most often ended by an abrupt change of topic. Notice in Dialogue 1 how the topic is changed by Woman #1 when she returns to a conversational opener:

> So, how's everything?

In Dialogue 4, the daughter begins to talk about the preparation of the evening meal in order to change the topic. And in Dialogue 5, the speakers begin to talk about the upcoming Super Bowl football game. If the thanker fails to recognize the giver's desire to end the thanking function by moving to another topic, the thanks can become embarrassing to the giver.

It should be noted that thanking is not necessarily over after the end of the first thanking episode. We have collected a number of examples of a "re-entry of thanks." Several weeks after the mother received the robe from the daughter and the daughter left for her own home a thousand miles away, the mother telephoned the daughter and in the course of the conversation the following occurred:

> Mother: I wore your robe out to get the morning paper yesterday.
>
> Daughter: You did!
>
> Mother: It's so lovely. I hope the whole neighborhood saw me.

And then the mother switched the topic. In a similar manner, a re-entry of thanks occurred when a woman welcomed her friend and her small child at the door one cold January day:

> Woman: I've got the heat on. I hope the house isn't too cold.
>
> Friend: I don't think it will be. I've got a sweater on. (opening her coat) See? It's the one you gave me! I wear it all the time. It's my favorite.

What is remarkable is that this took place more than a year after the gift was given. While many of these instances of re-entry of thanks take place verbally, there are also examples of gratitude being expressed non-verbally. Many native speakers of English can tell you how they dust off gifts from "Aunt Hattie" and display them prominently when she comes to visit so that she will think the gift is being used and appreciated.

Interlocutor Relationships

It is important to note that interlocutor relationships affected thanks. Family members, as always, are a special case. In this study, we noticed that, among intimates, the giver often gently reprimanded the other person for spending money. When accepting a gift, the giver used expressions like:

> You don't have to buy me things.
> Oh, this is so expensive.
> You shouldn't spend so much.

There is some evidence in our data that socioeconomic class affects what is said when receiving gifts, favors and services. Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (1986) note that pragmatic principles are subject to both intercultural and intracultural variation. Affluent Anglo-American subjects said that they could not imagine going to friends for loans. Russian, Ukranian, Chinese and German subjects indicated that they, too, would find the lack of money a source of shame and so could not imagine asking a friend for money.

Class and ethnicity can affect other aspects of gift-giving. Affluent Anglo-American subjects indicated they would say very little when receiving a casual gift (like a hostess present) for fear of placing too much emphasis on the gift rather than the person. They indicated that they would probably put the gift aside and open it at a later time to avoid any social embarrassment. Greek and Asian informants have told us that they would probably not open a gift handed to them in the presence of others unless the giver insisted. On the other hand, a Jewish New Yorker of lower middle class background told us that a gift would be opened immediately in front of the giver except under special circumstances. Some non-native students (particularly Hispanics) report their dismay when, having made a great effort to choose the correct gift, they see it put aside unopened. We need more data on this, but, clearly, sociopragmatic failure in thanking can involve nonverbal as well as verbal miscommunication.

For Anglo-Americans, the re-entry of thanks is as important as the original thanks—which would have to be performed out of politeness whether felt or not felt. Our Anglo-American informants said that when a person takes the additional time to call, write a note, or mention the gift at a later time, they feel that the gift was truly appreciated. In traditional American Jewish families, important interactions tend to be done face-to-face. Writing or calling are considered less meaningful. Our Polish and Puerto Rican informants also greatly preferred face-to-face thanking.

Cross-Cultural Differences

We further extended our study by asking bilingual speakers of English and another language to write dialogues in their native languages which exhibit the expression of gratitude. We then asked them for literal translations of these dialogues in English. Some informants commented that a few of the situations we suggested simply would not occur in their countries. Russians and Poles told us that farewell parties are not given at work. Some subjects, nevertheless, attempted a response with unusual results. A Punjabi speaker wrote this (first in Punjabi and then translated it literally into English) as a response to the offer of a farewell party:

> Oh, really, indeed, there is no need for a party. You are making a big deal out of nothing. Moreover, I am not going far away, and I will stop by to see you.

A Chinese informant wrote:

> I will tell her I will pay for the party.

Imagine the consternation this would cause the American who offered to organize the farewell party as a gesture of affection and expected a surprised and pleased acceptance!

With reference to the gift giving situation, a Punjabi informant responded:

> Why did you bother to bring a gift? Your presence is a big gift for me.

This suggests that ritualized downplaying may be a part of receiving gifts in that culture.

Even though English uses many conventionalized expressions in thanking and responding to thanks, it uses few fixed sayings which express ritualized wisdom like those we found in the data of our Lebanese-Arabic, Egyptian-Arabic and Punjabi informants. For example, when receiving a loan, these informants used expressions such as:

> May God increase your bounty.
> May God grant you a long life.
> You are a blessing to us from God.

Although our informants meant these utterances to enhance the expression of gratitude, the first two expressions were found to be strange and difficult to interpret by some English speakers. Two possible interpretations were, "I hope you get even richer so you can give me more money in the future," or "I hope you live a long time because I may need you again!" The native speakers of the other languages indicated that they feel an emptiness in English since it lacks these expressions. They find these sayings very comforting since they are used to fill in pauses in the conversation when they do not know quite what else to say. While English has a great many conventionalized expressions (Yorio, 1980) and set routines, the only expression we found in our data that corresponded to the ritualized sayings which occur in other languages can be found in Dialogue 1 when Woman #1 (a New Yorker) says, "Wear it in good health."

Other cross-cultural differences arose with other situations. A Chinese informant indicated that modesty (we would call it excessive modesty) is called for when the boss offers a raise:

> Thank you very much. But I think I have not done so well to get such a raise. Anyway, I'd try to do better."

A Japanese informant felt that the loan of $500.00 was so important that an appropriate response in Japanese would be:

> I'm sorry. I'll always remember the debt of gratitude. Thank you.

It is clear, therefore, that other languages express thanking in a significantly different manner than English. From the foreign language written questionnaire responses, we could see that a number of the other languages operate on different sociopragmatic systems and have very different ways of communicating gratitude linguistically. We did not, however, find many instances of this transfer with our advanced level non-native speakers when they role-played. We found, instead, considerable awkwardness and excessive hesitation and pausing due, we believe, to the students' simply not knowing what English words to use. We believe that they had rejected a literal transfer from their first languages.

Conclusion

To summarize, we have found that thanking is a speech act that is mutually developed. The giver is as active and as important a part of the speech act as the thanker. Givers comment, prompt and react as well as provide needed reassurance that it is all right to take. Thankers ask for favors, gifts or services indirectly, and once they are offered, make ritual refusals and downplay the obligation of giver to give.

From a methodological point of view, our study showed that elicited written data accurately reflected the words and expressions used by native and non-native speakers in expressing gratitude. Role-plays revealed interactive aspects of the function, but still contained an element of artificiality. Natural data were most indicative of the interactive process involved in expressing gratitude. An integration of all three kinds of data provided us with helpful insights.

Finally, we discovered that advanced level learners of English still have considerable difficulty handling themselves in thanking situations. They need information on what to say or they need experience in attending to what natives say. Students must compare the native models to their own speech and become aware of the pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic rules of English.

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APPENDIX I
QUESTIONNAIRE

1. It's Friday. You look in your wallet and notice that you only have $2.00. Your good friend at work notices this and hears you say, "Darn. I'll have to go to the bank." Your friend asks if you need money, and you say that you forgot to go to the bank. Your friend says, "I have plenty. How much do you need?" You say, "Can you lend me $5.00? I'll pay you back on Monday." Your friend says, "Sure. Are you sure you don't need more than that?" You say you don't. Your friend gives you the $5.00 and you say:

2. It's your birthday, and you're having a few people over for dinner. A friend brings you a present. You unwrap it and find a blue sweater. You say:

3. You work for a large company. The vice president of personnel calls you into his office. He tells you to sit down. You feel a little nervous because you have only been working there for six months. The vice president says, "You're doing a good job. In fact, we are so pleased with you that I'm going to give you a $20.00 a week raise." You say.

4. You find yourself in sudden need of money–$500.00. You mention this to a friend. Your friend immediately offers to lend it to you. You are surprised and very grateful. At first you say, "Oh no, I didn't mean for you to lend it to me. I couldn't take it." Your friend says, "Really, it's all right. What are friends for?" Your friend writes out a check for $500.00 and gives it to you. After your friend insists again, you take the check, and you say:

5. You are married. Both you and your spouse work. You come home late from work and find that your spouse has done some work around the house that you had promised to do, but had not had a chance to get to. You look at the work and say:

6. Your friend suggests going out to lunch. You say that you'd like to go, but you only have $2.00. You friend says, "Ah, don't worry. I'll take you today." Your friend takes you to a very nice restaurant–a much more expensive one than the ones you usually go to. You have a wonderful meal. Your friend pays and as you get up to leave, you say:

7. You have just gotten a new and better job. A friend at the office tells you that she has organized a farewell party for you. You say:

8. You have been invited to the home of a rather new friend. You have dinner with him and his wife and a few other friends of theirs. The food was great, and you really enjoyed the evening. As you leave, your hosts accompany you to the door and you say:

APPENDIX II

Dialogue 1 (A role-play between two native speakers)
Woman 1: I've got something for you.
Woman 2: You do? (takes package and unwraps) Oh, my goodness. Why did you do this? . . . a blue sweater. (giggles) How did you know this is just what I needed? It's wonderful. Thank you. I'm so surprised!
Woman 1: (laughing) Price tag in it?
Woman 2: I can really use this . . .
Woman 1: Good. I hope it fits.
Woman 2: Oh, I'm sure it will. Thank you. (goes to try it on) It's medium, I'm sure it will. TA-DA!
Woman 1: (laughing) Yes, it does fit nicely.
Woman 2: Yes, it's just what I needed. That's really nice.
Woman 1: Wear it in good health.
Woman 2. Thank you.
Woman 1: So, how's everything? (topic changes)

Dialogue 2 (A role-play between two native speakers)
Woman 1: I've only got $2.00. What am I going to do now? I guess. I'll have to go to the bank.
Woman 2: Oh, you don't have to go to the bank. I have money. I can lend you some.
Woman 1: Oh no, I don't want to bother you. Thanks.
Woman 2: Really I have plenty. Believe me, you can have it.
Woman 1: Can you lend me $5.00, do you think?
Woman 2: Yeah. Sure. Here.
Woman 1: Oh, I really appreciate this. Thanks.
Woman 2: You're welcome.

Dialogue 3 (Natural data - a conversation between two native speakers)
Mother. Another box, huh? Oooo . . . what did you buy? Oh, I shouldn't. . . . I thought when she went out I should tell her not to buy one thing.
Daughter: Us. This is for you.
Mother: What?
Daughter: And this one is for me.
Mother: This is for me? Ohhhhh.
Daughter: That's for you.
Mother: Ohhh, Jeanie, what'd you do that for now?
Daughter: (giggle)
Mother: That's too much. (opening the gift box) Oooo! Oh, my, that's lovely. Lovely. Oh, my, Jeanie, that's pretty.

Daughter: Open it up.
Mother: Ooo. Beautiful. Oh, yes.
Daughter: See? . . . That'll keep you warm.
Mother: Yes, I should say so. That's beautiful.
Daughter: Good. I'm glad you like it. It should be washable. Machine washable.
Mother: Is it?
Daughter: I think so. Just toss it in the machine.
Mother: Ohh. Oh, my, that's lovely. Thank you.
Daughter: Oh, you're welcome. (they kiss and laugh) What are we having for dinner?

Dialogue 4 (Natural data - a conversation between two native speakers)
Mother: (looking in a gift box of assorted pastries) Oooo. Oo. Oo. Oo.
Daughter: You've got a choice.
Mother: Ohhh. You spent too much money.
Daughter: No.
Mother: Oh, dear.
Daughter: No.
Mother: Yes.
Daughter: No, it was fine.
Mother: You shouldn't. I'll have to pay you.
Daughter. No, no, no. (switches topic)

Dialogue 5 (Natural data - a conversation among native speakers, a 12-year-old boy, two men and two women)
Aunt: Why don't you give Erik his?
Uncle: Erik? Here's . . .
Erik: Oh, thank you.
Uncle. Your Christmas present.
Erik: Thank you. (opening present) Oh! Excellent!
Aunt: Do you like that?
Erik: I . . . I've always wanted a good sweater. We were going to get one. Now I don't need one. Excellent, thanks.
Aunt: Good.
Uncle: Good.
Aunt: I don't know. It may be a little big.
Dad: Ooo. That looks great.
Mom: Oo-la-la!
Dad: Hey, Joe College.
Mom: Ooo. And that's a real wool one. Aww. That looks like an Eddie Bauer.
Erik: Thank you.
Mom. Is it wool?

Aunt: Yeah. It may be a little big. But I figure that . . . Erik . . . any minute now, it'll fit.
Mom: Yeah. Oh . . . handsome!
Aunt: It's a little big.
Mom: He was just talking about how he wanted some good-looking sweaters to wear to school. That's what the kids are wearing. Oh, boy.
Aunt: (looking at the television) Hey, look, the Superbowl's coming on.

Dialogue 6 (A role-play between a Turkish man and a Brazilian woman)
Man: This is very kind of you inviting . . . eh . . . to you birthday . . . eh . . . party . . . eh . . . may I introduce you . . . eh . . . angora sweater if you mind . . . eh . . . if you like a sweater.
Woman: Ay! Are you give me a sweater . . . a blue sweater?
Man: A blue sweater . . . yes.
Woman: Ah . . . Oh, that's wonderful. I really do like it.
Man: I'm happy you like it.
Woman: I will. And . . . eh . . .
Man: That's fine. And . . . eh . . . hoping to celebrate you next birthday all together again.
Woman: And so you can give me another sweater! (laughing) This time red, okay?
Man: Yes, okay.

Dialogue 7 (A role-play between a French man and a Malaysian Chinese woman)
Woman: I know today's a special day. I brought something for you.
Man: Why is this a special day? Is a surprise?
Woman: It's your birthday.
Man: Oh, is birthday. Are you sure? How did you know that?
Woman: (long pause)
Man: I'm really surprised, but . . . uh . . . I'm really at ease, but thank you very much because that's very nice and I didn't know you learned it was my birthday. I appreciate it.
Woman: Don't mention it. (gives him the present)
Man: Wow! My God! But I like! Ah . . . that's . . . oh . . . I like that. Thank you very much.
Woman: Don't mention it.

Dialogue 8 (A role-play between a Chinese woman and a Russian woman)
Woman 1: Since you have been work here . . . uh . . . very good and very diligent. I like you very much. From next week I will raise your salary $15.00 every week. Would you like this?
Woman 2: Yes. Thanks a lot. Thanks a lot.

Woman 1: Don't mention it. . . . And . . . uh . . . that's all. Would you please go back to your work?

Dialogue 9 (A role-play between native English speakers)
Woman 1: How about going out to lunch this afternoon? Are you free?
Woman 2: I'm free, but I . . . I don't know. I just didn't take enough with me . . .
Woman 1. Well, don't worry about it, I'll treat you.
Woman 2: No, I don't want you to do that.
Woman 1. It's okay. It's my pleasure.
Woman 2: (silence)
Woman 1: Next time you can treat me. Okay?
Woman 2: Well, all right.

Dialogue 10 (A role-play between a Spanish man and a Hispanic woman)
Woman: Joe, I have a little problem. I just realize that I don't have any money with me and the banks are closed now. Do you think is possible for you to lend me at least ten dollars for the weekend?
Man. Ten dollars? Do you need that money for what? To eat or . . . ?
Woman: No . . . just to have some money with me for the week in case any emergency comes up . . .
Man. Yes, I can. I can borrow . . .
Woman: I can lend you . . .
Man: I can lend you, I can lend you ten dollars, but don't forget next Thursday . . . when you . . . Yes, when you get paid, give me back ten dollars and if you want to give me some interests . . . well . . .
Woman: (laughing) Oh . . . thank you very much. I really appreciate that.

APPENDIX III

The Role of the Giver

Offer

- Here.
- I'll take you.
- How much do you need?

Downplay the offer

- Here's a little something.
- Really, I have plenty.
- I hate to eat alone.

Comment

- It's washable.

Prompt

- I hope it fits.
- Do you like it?
- Did you have a good time?

Reassure

- Really, it's all right.
- What are friends for?

React

- Oh, good.
- I'm glad you like it.
- It was nice to see you.

Close

- Well, good.
- Don't worry about it.
- It is/was my pleasure.
- Don't mention it.
- (Change topic)

Role of the Thanker

Hesitate

- Oh, I couldn't.
- Are you sure it's all right?
- Oh, come on. No!

Express surprise

- For me?
- You're kidding!

Compliment

- It's lovely.
- This is nice.
- You're so nice.
- You're the best husband/wife in the whole world.

Offer or suggestion of repayment

- I'll pay you back on . . . .
- Next time, I'll take you.
- I hope we can do this again sometime (soon).
- If there is anything I can ever do for you . . . .

Re-thank

- I love the sweater you gave me.
- That was such a nice evening.
- Thanks again for helping me out. I don't know what I would have done without you.

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Song and Music Techniques in Foreign and Second Language Classrooms

Dale Griffee

Music is pervasive in our daily lives and a powerful force in the world. With the widespread distribution of standard cassette tapes, inexpensive radios, and small playback mechanisms, music is available to almost anyone, anywhere. A home stereo is no longer considered a luxury in many countries. In other countries, for example Kenya, the use of radio for EFL instruction has become an important consideration in developing language policy (Imhoof 1985).

Music has become so much a part of life that even to be conscious of it sometimes requires an act of will. Ferguson (1983) lists 15 places and circumstances where music is usually heard and in each case serves a different purpose:

1. cathedral
2. fairground
3. kindergarten
4. disco
5. plane on landing
6. chic French restaurant
7. restaurant on a luxury cruise
8. vegetarian restaurant
9. music in a public park
10. introduction to a TV serial
11. supermarket in the morning
12. doctor's waiting room
13. exhibition of modern painting
14. circus
15. sports stadium

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Of importance to TESOL, pop and rock music is the overwhelming favorite of the youth culture. Little (1983) points out that for a group of French-speaking high school students surveyed in Montreal, "Pop and rock means English-language pop and rock."

Given the pervasiveness of music and the strong impact of the English language on popular music, one might expect the situation to be reflected in TESOL literature. In fact, there is a paucity of research relating to the classroom use of songs, singing, and music in general. In the articles that do exist it is customary to begin by giving what the author considers to be the merits of songs and music and then go on to explain a technique and its application (Parker 1969, Coe 1972, Griffee 1981, Stoynoff 1983). While it is also customary not to substantiate any claims, those of us who are attracted to the musical area of TESOL remain convinced, if only intuitively, that much can be gained by the use of music.

There are encouraging signs in TESOL of a persistent and perhaps even growing interest in music. One sign is the continuing publication of ESL songbooks (Graham 1982, Abe and Marquardt 1982, Merdinger and Rosenfeld 1984). Another sign is actually a constellation of trends within TESOL that directly or indirectly supports an interest in music. These include such trends as an increased awareness of the importance of listening; an emphasis on using activities that capitalize on both the right and left side of the brain; and finally, interest in communicative language teaching in general. The work of Krashen in language acquisition as well as Via and Maley in drama also serve to support and stimulate an interest in musical forms. And not least, in the culture at large, recent benefit concerts remind us of the immense power that music and its popular performers have to focus our attention on a given problem in the world.

We might then conclude from this short discussion that even though conditions favor the use of songs and music in language classrooms, we are still in a primitive period, a time of pre-research. In the remainder of this paper six positive benefits of using songs and music are identified and six techniques are examined.

1. Songs and Music Lower Anxiety

Songs and music create a relaxed and enjoyable classroom atmosphere that reduces anxiety and enhances learning (Jolly 1975, Leith 1979). To use Krashen's metaphor, songs and music lower the affective filter. Many experienced teachers have noted this aspect of songs and music (Dickinson 1978, Elson and Fox 1983, Gelman 1973, Parker 1969 and Techmeier 1969). Jack Richards (1969) even adds:

> Pleasure for its own sake is an important part of language learning, a fact which is often overlooked by the teacher in his quest for teaching points, or by the course designer focusing on presentation or repetition.

Taking cognizance of this, Bartle (1962) urges teachers to introduce songs and music as early as possible to the young language learner, noting that if students do not enjoy their first year of foreign language study, it will be an uphill battle from then on.

2. Songs and Vocabulary

Songs are useful for teaching vocabulary. There seems to be substantial agreement on this issue (Abrate 1983, Bartle 1962, DeSelms 1983, Dickinson 1978, Elson and Fox 1983, Gelman 1973, Griffee 1981, Jolly 1975, Loew 1979, McBeath 1986 and J. Richards 1969). There is little concern, however, for either theoretical or pedagogical justification of this point, perhaps because usefulness of songs for this purpose is considered obvious.

For most writers what exactly is meant by vocabulary is left undefined. Gelman (1973), however, says that songs are likely to contain plenty of racy colloquial phrases. Dickinson (1978) includes idiomatic phrases and slang in her understanding of vocabulary. A further consideration for some writers is that songs give a context to vocabulary that enhances learning (DeSelms 1983, Abrate 1983). Finally, Jolly (1975) reports that in her class evaluations, written by students at the end of the year, songs were a highly valued component and were specifically mentioned as helping to increase vocabulary.

3. Songs as Listening Material

Since the 1970s, songs, especially pop songs, have increasingly been recommended for listening comprehension. Several reasons are given for this. The colloquial use of language in songs gives examples of popular language often missing from the classroom (Abrate 1983). Songs can be used to practice structural items such as past tense verbs as well as to tell an interesting story that can be discussed in class (DeSelms 1983, L. Smith 1976, P. Smith 1980), and finally, listening forces the students to rely on their ears as well as their eyes (Griffee 1981).

4. Songs as Supplemental Texts

Songs can be used to supplement a textbook or they can serve as the text itself. There are several options. One option is to use the song after the regular lesson. This appears to be the position of Coe (1972). Little (1983) calls this option a change of pace, or *What to do on blue Mondays and restless Fridays.* Another option is the use of songs for special occasions such as Christmas when the textbook has no unit on that subject (Case and Piske 1977, Abrate 1983). A third option is a situation in which a teacher does use a text and the text does have a unit on the subject, but the teacher wants to add an additional component such as vocabulary, a structure, or a discussion topic. Leith (1979) uses this option when he describes his French FL class in which he alternates between using a main text and a session with a "conversation based on a ballad." Jolly also uses a main text but says, "Songs are more than fun material and can be valuable teaching material in themselves" (Jolly 1975). A fourth option is when evaluating "a song as a teaching aid, don't think of it as a song. Think of it as a text, and decide its value in the same way as you would any other text" (Wilson 1985). This option does not contradict any of the above options.

5. Songs as Grammatical Review

Songs and music can be used to present, review and reinforce grammatical structures. While many writers note this use of songs but don't go into much supporting detail (Abrate 1983, Bartle 1962, Dickinson 1978, Gelman 1973, McBeath 1986), Dubin (1975) lists four types of songs she suggests focus on grammatical patterns. These types are repetition songs in which one word or phrase is repeated; substitution songs that have a minimal change within a basic sentence, for example the song "If I Had A Hammer"; focused grammatical structure songs, for example "El Condor Pasa"; and internal pattern rearrangement songs, which are a more complex form of substitution song in which a sub-group of internal patterns supply part of the lyrics. An example would be "Oh, You Can't Get To Heaven on Roller Skates." Urbancic and

Vizmuller (1981) make the point relative to the use of songs to present and/or revise grammatical structures that by using a song and a cloze exercise they were able to observe which structures the students had trouble with and which structures most of the class had correct. By using the song as a diagnostic tool, they were able to concentrate on trouble points, and at the advanced level were able to discuss grammar points in L2 (Italian).

6. Songs and Culture

Songs and music from various cultures can be used to compare and contrast those cultures. Using songs and music in this way is based on three assumptions. The first is that music is not universal. As Meyer states:

> . . . the studies of comparative musicologists bringing to our attention the music of other cultures, has made us increasingly aware that the particular organization developed in Western music is not universal, natural, or God-given. (Meyer 1956:6)

A second assumption is that the world is experiencing an emerging globalism. ESL teachers experience this phenomenon when students bring with them their own culture; EFL teachers experience this when living in another culture; FL teachers experience this when they teach students who want and need to know more about the culture of L2.

A third assumption is that all music is ethnic (Cullen 1980). Using the term "world musics," Louise Cullen, a Music Program Leader with the North York Board of Education, Ontario, Canada, argues that given an emerging world culture, and that academic instutions have traditionally supported the study of the cultures, it makes sense to regard all music as ethnic, with each worthy of study and appreciation. She does not wish to depreciate Beethoven and the Western classic tradition, rather, she wants to preserve the cultural diversity of other music systems and to introduce students to the "full spectrum of new musical sounds in a stimulating way in which they are able to discover that various peoples in the world have musics that are unique, complex, and as exciting as their own."

Turning now to practical application, corresponding song techniques will be offered to illustrate some aspect of each of the above benefits.

1. Visualization: Drawing and Discussing Non-Program Music

One of the properties of music is its ability to produce strong images in listeners. These images can be drawn with pencil and paper and used as the basis for discussion.

Select a piece of non-programatic, instrumental music (in other words, some instrumental music that does not tell a story). It is a good idea if the students aren't familiar with the music. Examples might be from albums such as *The Genius of Ravi Shankar* or *Nature's Mystic Mood: the Sound of the Forest and the Water.*

Steps

(1) Tell the students to relax, that they are going to listen to some music, but don't tell them the type or name of the music.

(2) Play the music. About one minute should be sufficient. While listening, ask students to close their eyes.

(3) Do not discuss the music, but ask students to take pen or pencil and paper and draw the picture that was in their minds when they were listening. If a student tells you that he felt warm, happy, sad, etc., this is not what you are after. Images in our mind are very concrete. Students should be able to tell you what they saw as if they were describing a photograph.

(4) The class discussion can be brief or take several minutes and can be in small groups or the class as a whole.

2. Vocabulary Songs

This technique can utilize almost any song to introduce and/or review vocabulary and idiomatic phrases. It can also be used to introduce a song that you want to use for other purposes, e.g. discussion.

Write out the lyrics and have copies ready to hand out.

Steps

(1) Play the song with no preparation and no handouts. Tell the students just to listen and that you will give them the words later.

(2) As an option, you can discuss any words the students caught.

(3) Give the students the lyrics face down. When every student has a copy and you begin to play the song again, they can turn them over. Tell them to listen to the song and follow along on the

songsheet. They should circle any word or phrase they don't understand.

(4) Ask students to tell you what they circled. Discuss as a whole or break into groups to compare.

Extensions

(1) Use this technique to introduce a song. When the class has the vocabulary under control, other techniques can then be introduced. For example, introduce a song such as "I Left My Heart In San Francisco" as illustrated above, then in a later class use the same song with techniques such as Song Cards or Past Tense Letter (see below).

(2) This technique is also good for songs that are thematically relevant to a lesson you are teaching. Even difficult songs can be used if the theme of the songs matches the theme of the lesson. As an option, ask students to circle words that they know. Have the students tell you/each other what the word means. Then listen again and underline or circle words they don't know.

(3) Write the vocabulary words or phrases on cards and save them for review.

(4) Use the above cards for a circle conversation (Griffee 1985). Everybody sits in a circle. The teacher turns over a card. One by one each student makes a sentence either using the vocabulary directly or with a reference to the topic.

3. Song Cards for Listening

Song cards are blank cards on which the teacher writes the words to the song. While listening, the students arrange the cards in order. Each card has either a single word or phrase written on it. Together, the cards form the complete set of lyrics. This activity works especially well with short songs or one verse of a song.

Buy some cards about the size of business cards or cut a larger card into pieces. Paper works as well, but a card lasts longer and is easier to handle. Write the lyrics on the cards. For a very short song put one word on a card. But phrases work as well. The following example is from the song, "I Left My Heart In San Francisco," which has a short introductory verse and one main verse. The words below are from the main verse.

"I left my heart in San Francisco. High on a hill it calls to me to be where little cable cars climb halfway to the stars. The morning fog may chill the air, I don't care. My love waits there, in San Francisco, above the blue and windy sea. When I come home to you, San Francisco, your golden sun will shine for me."

I LEFT	MY HEART
IN SAN FRANCISCO	HIGH ON A
HILL	IT CALLS

Steps

(1) Play the song through once to give a preview. Tell the students to listen only and not to take notes because you are going to give them the words.

(2) After explaining the vocabulary (you can use this technique as a follow-up to Vocabulary Songs), put the cards face up on a table or flat surface. One set of cards can be used by several students.

(3) Play the song and ask the students to arrange the cards in order. It may take several listenings.

(4) You can do Song Cards for review in a later lesson and the challenge and interest should remain high. The reason is probably because they use several sense modalities: the visual, the auditory and the kinesthetic. Even poorer students who listen and watch while other students put the cards in order are participating through their visual and auditory senses. Another reason is the satisfaction that comes from creating order out of randomness. Seeing all those cards correctly arranged on a table is its own reward.

Extensions

(1) Singing. After several sessions of putting Song Cards in order, the tune as well as the words become familiar and it may be easy to sing. In fact, Song Cards are one way to introduce singing.

(2) Select the concrete nouns and draw pictures on a card instead of the words.

(3) Paste the cards on a large piece of paper and hang it on the wall.

4. Tell 'Em A Story: Songs as Supplemental Texts

This is a listening technique that provides students with a paraphrased version of the song before they actually hear it. This gives students a basis for understanding the song lyrics.

Write the lyrics. Also write a paraphrased version including explanations of unusual terms and any relationships between characters.

Steps

(1) Read the paraphrased version of the song to your students. (This example comes from the song, "I'm My Own Grandpa.")

> . . . The daughter was grown up or old enough to get married herself. The young man's father met her and fell in love with her. They got married. After their wedding, life became complicated for the . . . (Lonzo & Oscar)

(2) As an optional step, hand out the story for silent reading and class discussion.

(3) Listen to the song.

(4) Hand out lyrics if desired.

Extensions

(1) Have the students tell stories from their own experiences similiar to the theme of the song.

(2) Consider the song a snapshot. Ask students to make up the background. What happened to bring these people to the point of the song?

(3) This technique works to introduce a song. It will work for most songs, but is especially helpful for songs that tell stories. Continue with other story-related activities.

5. Past Tense Letter: Songs for Structural Review

This exercise capitalizes on the fact that songs present grammatical structures in a meaningful context. Past Tense Letter Uses a song to review a structure and then invites the students to write their own creative response.

Decide on the structure or structures you want to review and decide on a song that includes them. Then prepare lyrics with the structures you wish to review clozed.

Steps

(1) Tell your students that they will study the selected structure(s), the feelings depicted in the song, and letter writing.

(2) As an option, consider presenting and reviewing the structure.

(3) Hand out the clozed form. The first paragraph of the example below is from the song, "How Important Can It Be?"

> Dear ____________________,
>
> How important can it be that I ________ other lips? That ________ long before you ______________ to me with the magic of your kiss.
>
> . . . .
>
> Love,
>
> ____________________
>
> Have students write their name after the salutation, Dear ____ ________. Ask them to write the name of a famous singer, movie star, etc., on the line after the word *love.*

(4) Working in pairs or groups, have the students fill in the clozed passage before they listen to the song. Then listen to confirm.

(5) Ask students to individually write their reply to the sender. The teacher can participate too. Class discussion.

Possible songs for use in reviewing past tense verbs:
"How Important Can It Be"
"Ring of Fire"
"Rudolph, the Red-Nosed Reindeer"
"Don't Cry Out Loud"
"Cat's in the Cradle"

6. Song Strings: Comparing and Contrasting Culture

Song Strings are short recordings of 20 to 30 seconds of several pieces of instrumental music. To make a song string, gather several song tapes and make a new tape from the other tapes. You can use this new tape, your song string, for several activities.

Decide on the type of Song String you want and your teaching point. In the following example the teaching point is countries and names of countries. The music selected for the Song String is:

The Genius of Ravi Shankar (India)
Benny Goodman, Let's Dance (USA)
Chinese Classical Music (China)
Rampal Japanese Melodies (Japan)
Bach's Toccata & Fugue in D minor (Germany)

Steps

(1) Play the Song String and ask for impressions. Can anyone identify any of the music?

(2) Play again and ask students to guess which country each piece of music comes from. If you have a world map, students can locate the country. Or give students pictures depicting some aspect of the country and ask students to arrange the pictures in the same order they hear the music.

(3) Follow-up activities can include a review of names of countries and what people from those countries are called, questions about size, location, population, or a discussion centering on the pictures in step two.

Extensions

(1) Make other types of Song Strings. You could select time periods, pop music of the 40s, 50s, 60s, 70s, etc.; types of music, jazz, new age rock soul, country & western; periods of music such as baroque, romantic, post-romantic, electronic; or compare instruments, the violin, bag pipes, drums, vocal types.

(2) For a quick review, play the Song String later and ask students what they remember.

(3) Listen to a Song String and ask students to write any associations they have as they listen. Discuss.

(4) Instead of selecting magazine pictures that depict some aspect of the culture as in step two, select pictures on another theme. For example, select only pictures of animals. Ask students to select which animals they would pair with each selection on the Song String. Other types of pictures might be ordinary people, objects, famous persons, or cities.

(5) Instead of giving students one picture for every piece of music on your Song String, give them several of one, a few of another and none of one.

In conclusion, this article has argued that even though there is an increased awareness of the possible applicability of songs and music in the language classroom, research and application lag behind. Six benefits of using songs and music, and six techniques were offered. It is hoped that language researchers and teachers will consider music a promising area.

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Measuring Communication in ESL/EFL Classes

James W. Tollefson

As communicative teaching practices become commonplace, teachers are implored to increase the amount of communication taking place in their ESL/EFL classes. But how can they and their supervisors be sure that this is taking place? Is there a practical tool that teachers and supervisors can use to assess whether a class is truly communicative?

This article proposes one such tool used in the Pre-Employment Program at the United States Refugee Processing Center in the Philippines to determine the degree to which classes have incorporated communicative teaching practices. The tool, based upon the distinction between display and referential questions, offers a concise means for gaining a broad estimate of the extent to which communication is taking place in classes.

Measuring Communication

With the growing importance of notional-functional syllabuses and communicative teaching methods, many teachers are being asked to increase the amount of real communication in their classes. Based upon important changes in second language acquisition theory (see Nagle and Sanders 1986), the communicative approach emphasizes realistic language use for the exchange of messages. One major principle of the communicative approach is that classroom interaction should closely resemble real world communication in which the focus is on the content of messages

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rather than the form of the language used to convey those messages (see Krahnke and Christison 1983). This approach is in contrast to methods that emphasize pattern drills, manipulation of structures, and other kinds of formal practice.

Though many ESL professionals support the movement toward increasing communication in ESL classes, research has shown that classroom practices may provide few opportunities for students to use language communicatively (Long and Sato 1983). This is because teachers do not necessarily adhere to teaching practices prescribed by particular methodologies, despite what they may say about their teaching (Long 1983). For this reason, studies comparing different methodologies fairly consistently show no difference in student achievement. For example, the large scale Pennsylvania (Smith 1970) and Colorado (Scherer and Wertheimer 1964) studies compared grammar translation and audiolingual methods, as well as audiolingual and cognitive methods, and found little difference in student performance. Though this finding is often used as evidence that all methods are somehow equal, further investigation reveals that what actually happens in classrooms may bear little resemblance to the teacher's professed methodology, and therefore comparisons of the effectiveness of different teaching practices are invalidated. In regard to the communicative approach, several studies have shown that teachers may define communicative competence as a list of structures that students must practice in teacher-centered drills that are not significantly different from traditional audiolingual drills (Long 1983, Long and Sato 1983, Phillips and Shettlesworth 1973).

This finding means that it is not enough for a program to prescribe a particular approach to instruction, or even to offer teacher training in specific techniques. It is equally important to observe classes in order to document that teachers actually employ teaching practices appropriate to the methodology. For this reason, in 1985 the Pre-Employment Training Program at the Philippine Refugee Processing Center sought to determine whether teachers working within a program that had adopted the communicative approach were in fact using communicative classroom practices. In order to carry out such an assessment of teaching practices, a measuring tool had to be devised that would give a reasonably accurate picture of the degree of communication taking place in individual classrooms. Moreover, the tool had to be simple and efficient. It could not require major expenditure of staff time or other resources, and because some supervisors observing classes had less than two years experience, it could not rely upon individuals' subjective judgements. After careful consideration, the tool finally adopted was the distinction between display and referential questions.

Display and Referential Questions

Display questions, also called test questions, are designed to test students' abilities to produce or comprehend a particular vocabulary item, morpheme, grammatical structure, etc. Display questions ask the learner to provide, or to display, knowledge already known to the teacher. Examples of display questions include: "Are you a student?" "Where are you from?" "What day is today?" Typically, display questions have only one correct answer and therefore the response is highly predictable. Display questions are rarely asked in natural interaction. Their use is normally limited to language addressed to very young children or animals, and to language classrooms.

Referential questions are designed to gain real information. In referential questions, the teacher does not already know the answer, and therefore the response is not completely predictable. Examples include: "What would you like for lunch?" "Has anyone seen the eraser?" Referential questions are the most common type of question in natural interaction outside of language classes.

It is important to note that neither type of question has to be perfectly formed. Display questions include "What's your name?" and referential questions include "Where is the eraser?"

Though they constitute only a part of teachers' classroom language, display and referential questions are an appropriate means for measuring classroom communication because they play such a significant role in discourse involving non-native speakers outside classrooms as well as in ESL classes. Long (1981, 1983) found that questions are the form most frequently used by native speakers to initiate conversations with non-native speakers. Moreover, there is evidence that questions are the most common form used by ESL teachers in their classrooms (Sinclair and Coulthard 1975). In one study, one ESL teacher asked 427 questions in a single 50-minute period (White and Lightbown 1984). But the types of questions occurring in ESL classes differ significantly from those in natural interaction outside of class. While teachers typically ask significantly more display questions than referential questions, native speakers in informal conversations with non-native speakers primarily ask referential questions and virtually no display questions (Long and Sato 1983). This difference suggests that the distinction between display and referential questions offers a useful measure of the degree to which teachers are able to create meaningful, natural communicative interaction in their classrooms. Because natural interaction involving non-native speakers is characterized by a clear preference for referential questions over display questions, a communicative language class should contain a similar preference for referential questions. In general, the proportion of referential questions to display questions should be significantly higher in ESL classes using the communicative approach than in classes using pattern drills, formal practice, and manipulation of grammatical structures.

Teachers' Questions in the Pre-Employment Program

During 1984–1985, the Pre-Employment Training program at the Philippine Refugee Processing Center made a commitment to the communicative approach. With a student population of nearly 2,000, and changing enrollment every month, the program is an excellent setting for communicative language teaching. Intensive classes focus on the linguistic and cultural skills required in the American workplace. Thus, classroom content (e.g., job applications and interviews, assembly line production, etc.) offers a rich environment for students to communicate real messages in a realistic context. At the time of the study, the student population was primarily Vietnamese and Cambodian. Students were at a beginning level of proficiency, none were literate in English, and few were literate in their own language. In order to ensure a program-wide commitment to the communicative approach, teachers were given 10 hours of training in communicative teaching techniques, major curriculum revisions were carried out, supervisors were trained in evaluating communicative teaching, and a teachers' task force developed a series of tests of communicative competence.

After several months of implementing the communicative approach, program managers felt it was time to look carefully at actual teaching practices. Had the program's commitment to the communicative approach resulted in language classes where realistic communication regularly took place? In order to answer this question, one teacher was selected from each of the six groups of teachers working with different supervisors. For each teacher selected, 20 minutes of classroom interaction were recorded. Four of the classes were Cambodian, while two were Vietnamese. Of the Cambodian classes, one was in the first week of the program, while three were in the fourth week. Both of the Vietnamese classes were in the second week. For all students, the pre-employment program was the first time they had studied English.

Transcripts of the 20 minutes of classroom interaction were examined to determine the proportion of display and referential questions. Table 1 summarizes the results:

TABLE 1

Teachers' Display and Referential Questions

Teacher	Students' Ethnicity	Week	Teachers' Display Qs.		Teachers' Referential Qs.	
			No.	(%)	No.	(%)
1	Viet.	2	6	(22%)	21	(78%)
2	Viet.	2	40	(54%)	34	(46%)
3	Camb.	1	15	(100%)	0	(0%)
4	Camb.	4	20	(56%)	16	(44%)
5	Camb.	4	4	(12%)	30	(88%)
6	Camb.	4	18	(69%)	8	(31%)
		Total	103	(49%)	109	(51%)

Although the total number of questions in the six classes were almost evenly divided between display and referential questions (49% to 51%, respectively), individual teachers varied significantly in their use of display and referential questions. Teacher #3 asked no referential questions at all during the observation period, while 88% of the questions asked by teacher #5 were referential questions. Two teachers (#2 and #4) divided their questions almost evenly into display and referential questions, while one teacher (#6) asked mostly display questions, and one teacher (#1) asked mostly referential questions.

The significant differences in the proportion of display and referential questions occurring across classrooms suggests that students in the different classes received widely varying opportunities for natural communicative interaction, despite consistent teacher training and commitment to the communicative approach. But is this necessarily the case? Does a measure of teachers' language accurately reflect students' language use? Is the proportion of teachers' display and referential questions a fair measure of students' classroom communication? In order to check these results, an additional analysis was made of students' responses to questions. This analysis examined students' creative and imitative responses.

Students' Creative and Imitative Responses

Several studies suggest that display and referential questions elicit quite different responses. In first language classrooms, Dillon (1981) and Smith (1978) found that display questions elicit shorter responses, while Cole and Williams (1973) found that display questions elicit syntactically simpler responses than referential questions. In ESL classes, Brock (1986) found that referential questions elicit longer and syntactically more complex responses, and that these responses contain significantly more connectives, which play an important role in helping non-native speakers to communicate successfully. These studies suggest that the different proportions of display and referential questions in the pre-employment classes should be associated with differences in students' responses. In order to determine whether this was the case, and thereby to test whether counting the proportion of display and referential questions is a fair measure of classroom communication, we decided to examine the relationship between the type of question and the students' response.

Students' responses to questions may be distinguished by their degree of communicative creativity. Imitative responses are those which imitate in form and content the utterances of the teacher or another student. The clearest examples are pattern drills:

Teacher: Is that a green button?
Student: Yes, that is a green button.

Responses based on models are usually imitative. For instance, in the following dialogue, the student practices a response listed in the curriculum.

Teacher: What did you do in Cambodia?
Student: I was a farmer in Cambodia.

When the teacher asks each individual student the same question, students may imitate each other when providing their responses. In the following example, student #2 imitates student #1:

Teacher: Do you want to work in America?
Student #1: Yes, I want a job in America.
Teacher: Do you want to work in America?
Student #2: Yes, I want a job in America.

In contrast to imitative responses, creative responses do not imitate previous utterances in form and content. In the following example, both students provide creative responses to the teachers' question.

Teacher: How can you get money?
Student #1: Get job. Sell sarong. Sell gold.
Teacher: How can you get money?
Student #2: Friend give money.

Creative responses are not necessarily associated with referential questions. For instance, in the following example, the teacher asks a referential question, but the response of student #2 is imitative:

Teacher: Are you finished weighing the beans?
Student #1: Yes, I finished.
Teacher: Are you finished?
Student #2: Yes, I finished.

The analysis categorized students' responses during the same 20-minute period used for teachers' questions. Table 2 lists the number and percentage of students' creative and imitative responses for each class.

The results suggest a strong association between referential questions and creative responses on the one hand, and display questions and imitative responses on the other. Teacher #3 asked no referential questions, and students gave no creative responses. In contrast, teacher #5 asked mostly referential questions, and students' responses were overwhelmingly creative. Similarly, teacher #1 asked mostly referential questions, and 96% of students' responses were creative.

TABLE 2

Students' Imitative and Creative Responses

Teacher	Display Questions	Referential Questions	Imitative Responses	Creative Responses
	No. (%)	No. (%)	No. (%)	No. (%)
1	6 (22%)	21 (78%)	2 (4%)	49 (96%)
2	40 (54%)	34 (46%)	15 (24%)	47 (76%)
3	15 (100%)	0 (0%)	60 (100%)	0 (0%)
4	20 (56%)	16 (44%)	10 (37%)	17 (63%)
5	4 (12%)	30 (88%)	2 (3%)	57 (97%)
6	18 (69%)	8 (31%)	6 (22%)	21 (78%)

The class for teacher #6 appears to be an anomaly: While 69% of the teachers' questions were display type, 78% of the students' responses were creative. Close analysis of this class reveals that students were unusually comfortable and lively, volunteering to speak English without waiting for the teacher to ask questions. In this class, the teacher had relatively little control over the students' production, despite the prevalence of display questions.

Table 2 also suggests that referential questions may tend to elicit a greater number of responses than display questions. In classes #1 and #5, a total of 61 questions (51 of which were referential) elicited 110 responses. In contrast, 26 questions (18 display, 8 referential) in class #6 elicited only 27 responses. (In class #3, the high number of responses to only 15 display questions was due to the teachers' use of hand signals to elicit the same response from each student for a single question.)

The greater number of responses for referential questions may be explained by the open-ended nature of many referential questions. Because they do not have a specific prescribed answer, referential questions may be answered by different students in different ways. For instance, the following sample from class #5 shows the value of referential questions in creating opportunities for creative language use by students.

Teacher:	What is your favorite color?
Students:	Blue. Red. White. Black.
Teacher:	Your favorite color is red? Do you have a red sarong at home?
Student #1:	Yes. Have red blouse.

Teacher: Did you make it yourself? Can you sew? [gestures sewing action]
Student #1: No. Buy in Thailand.
Teacher: You bought it in Thailand? In America, will you wear your red blouse and put on red lipstick? [gestures]
Student #2: [laughing] Teacher, before go America, buy lip...
Teacher: How about you? What will you wear in America?
Student #2: Coat, tie.
Teacher: No pants? Won't you wear any pants?
Student #2: No! Yes! Wear pant and shoes like teacher.

Production such as this is not the result of imitation, but rather results from using English to communicate messages. The teachers' referential questions provide the context for the many creative responses.

Implications

It is essential that ESL programs adopting the communicative approach ensure that classroom instruction provides significant opportunities for actual communication to take place. This study suggests that the distinction between display and referential questions offers a useful and practical measure of classroom communication. Display questions tend to elicit imitative responses, whereas referential questions tend to elicit a relatively high number of creative responses. Because the teachers in this study had been trained in communicative teaching practices, the wide variation in the amount of communication in their classes suggests that additional training may be necessary for some teachers. One possible focus of this training is in questioning techniques. Brock (1986) has shown that teachers can be trained to ask more referential questions, and that as a result learner output is increased and extended conversations occur more easily. Follow-up observations of teachers' classes would provide evidence of the effectiveness of this training.

Variation in the use of communicative teaching practices suggests that ESL programs should carry out continuing evaluation of the teaching process (cf. Long 1984). The study reported here provides one means for measuring classroom communication. If such measures become a regular part of program evaluation, teachers and administrators will gain a better picture of what actually takes place in their classrooms.

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Hearing and Articulating /s/ in English and Japanese

Ronald S. Cairns

For most learners the pronunciation of a foreign language cannot simply be "picked up." Patient effort and sound guidance are needed. Among other things, the teacher must be aware of the essential features involved in articulating the sounds of the foreign language he is teaching, and of the difficulties that arise from the influence of the mother tongue upon the learner.

In Japan, despite the money, time and labor which is invested in teaching English, most Japanese still have difficulty with basic sounds of the language. Teachers are aware of a number of English sounds which tend to present problems. This paper deals with the problems involved for the Japanese learner in the articulation of one English phoneme, /s/. The articulation of individual sounds must be approached with thoroughness and must be free from faulty analysis. Furthermore, the task of the teacher will be greatly facilitated if he is aware of the features of articulation relative to the sound as it relates to both the target language and to the mother tongue of the learner.

It must be emphasized that the ability to articulate sounds in isolation is not the final answer to pronunciation problems. Nevertheless, it is the "nuts and bolts" element of the process and one which must not be ignored.

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The Phoneme /s/ and the Japanese Learner

For Japanese speakers of English the phoneme /s/ is one of the well-known problem sounds. In certain situations the student appears to avoid the sound altogether. For example, in the expression *That's a book,* the /s/ will often cause unexpected difficulties, tending to disappear at times from the speech of a beginner. The Japanese learner's production of the sound will often strike the listener as weak, to the extent that at times there is uncertainty about the meaning of the utterance.

In other contexts, in place of /s/, a sound close to the palato-alveolar fricative /ʃ/ will be substituted. Words like *seat, sea, seep, see-saw, sip* and *single* will often be produced to sound like *sheet, she, sheep, she-saw, ship* and *shingle,* respectively. Receipt usually sounds like *re-sheet.*

Again, /s/ will often be substituted for /θ/, and the confusion of *sink* with *think, sing* with *thing, use* with *youth, path* with *pass,* etc., is a well-known occurrence in the classroom. It is not only a problem of articulation, but of hearing as well. In my own classroom, *a youthful writer* was "heard" by a number of students as *a useful writer.*

Why should English /s/ prove so difficult for the Japanese learner to articulate in certain contexts? Why should /s/ be identified in the minds of Japanese students with the English dental fricative /θ/? Many other languages, in addition to Japanese, do not have /θ/. Nevertheless, speakers of Norwegian, Irish, Hungarian and many Indian languages characteristically, at the learning stage, substitute the dental plosive /t/ for the non-native dental fricative /θ/.

The answer to this question would require consideration of a number of phonemes in Japanese and English. But, I wish to look mainly at an aspect of the question which is directly connected with the learners' problems we have referred to. I refer to the basic articulation of Japanese /s/. It does not appear to have been adequately dealt with in contrastive studies of the two languages. Closely related to the question of articulation are the phonological rules governing its use. Let us look at each of these topics in turn.

The Articulation of Japanese /s/

Bloch (1950) describes Japanese /s/ as "a voiceless alveolar (groove) spirant." Contrastive studies since have described it as a voiceless alveolar fricative (Fukaya 1977, Onozawa 1977).[1] There appears to be disagreement, or at least a lack of precision, in descriptions of the sound, since the *Bulletin of the Phonetic Association of Japan* regularly describes the Japanese /s/ phoneme as a voiceless dental fricative.[2]

These descriptions are similar to the generally accepted descriptions for English /s/. Gimson (1980) describes English /s/ as a voiceless alveolar fricative. Tsuzuki (1981) in attempting to guide Japanese learners in the pronunciation of English sounds suggests the following three categories: a) sounds found in English but not in Japanese, b) sounds found in Japanese but not in English and c) sounds common to both languages. The /s/ phoneme is listed in the third category. While there is justification for such a categorization, the similarities between English /s/ and Japanese /s/ must not be allowed to obscure the differences. Otherwise, the teacher of English to Japanese learners is bound to wonder why, if English and Japanese /s/ are all but identical in articulation, the English /s/ should generate problems for his students. Textbooks also tend to emphasize the similarities rather than the differences. H.M. Taylor (1982:76), for example, states that English /s/ and /z/ are pronounced approximately the same as are the s and z sounds of Japanese.

It would seem that a better understanding and a more precise description of Japanese /s/ would be a first step in helping learners with pronunciation difficulties. I would suggest for investigation the following three points:

a) *Tongue position and configuration:* For the articulation of English /s/ "the tip and blade of the tongue make light contact with the upper alveolar ridge, and the side rims of the tongue make close contact with the upper side teeth. The air stream escapes by means of a narrow groove in the center of the tongue and causes friction between the tongue and the alveolar ridge" (Gimson: 1980). Japanese /s/, however, differs, I would suggest, in several particulars. First, the tongue is lower in the mouth, more relaxed and in a more forward position. Whether or not there is grooving of the tongue is debatable, but the narrow groove element of English /s/ is certainly absent.

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[1] See Fig. 1 and Fig. 2, Appendix

[2] See Fig. 3, Appendix

b) *The nature of the fricative element:* Because of the lower and more relaxed position of the tongue in Japanese /s/, air escapes over a more diffuse area than is the case with English, and the fricative sound is of lower intensity. Any slight alveolar friction that occurs is caused by light contact between the front or blade of the tongue (not the tip) and the alveolar ridge. The tip of the tongue is elsewhere. A factor which possibly further contributes to the low intensity and therefore to the effect of lightness in the Japanese fricative sound is the characteristic CV pattern of the Japanese phonemic system. I will come back to this.

c) *The presence of dental contact:* In articulating Japanese /s/, the tip of the tongue, and this is a vital point for understanding the problem, is almost always in contact with the teeth, and very often the lower teeth, if my own observations are sound.[3] Recognizing this fact, the Society of Japanese Phonetics, in the table of Japanese sounds which usually appears in the front inside page of its regular bulletin, shows the Japanese /s/ not as an alveolar fricative, but as a dental fricative (cf. Fig. 3 with Figs. 1 and 2, Appendix). It is safe to assume that while both alveolar and dental friction might be involved, dental contact between tongue tip and teeth is the more distinctive feature. To overlook this dental element will leave the teacher baffled.

Sinking and Thinking: Confusing 's' and 'th'

Japanese speakers of English characteristically confuse *sing* with *thing*, *saw* with *thaw*, *force* with *fourth*, *mouse* with *mouth*, etc. One reason for this is, of course, that /θ/ is a phoneme alien to Japanese, so that learners tend to hear and say what to them is the closest approximation of the sound in their own language, in this case /s/, a phoneme common to both languages.

This, however, is not a complete explanation of the difficulty, and teachers who content themselves with teaching the unfamiliar 'th' sound will only find frustration in their attempts to help their students. For, in fact, the problem is caused not only by difficulties with English /θ/ but by difficulties with English /s/ as well.

To say, as we did above, that /s/ is a phoneme common to both languages is true in a broad phonological sense, but for the teacher grappling with classroom problems of pronunciation it can also be misleading. Japanese /s/, as we have seen, is not identical in articulation to English /s/. Moreover, the fricative patterns of English differ from the fricative patterns of Japanese, which adds to the difficulty. Gimson (1980) says, "The existence, in particular, of place oppositions between the dental, alveolar and palato-alveolar areas of articulation necessitates a precision of articulation in English which is not required in languages lacking, for instance, either the dental or palato-alveolar pairs." Japanese /s/ is an illustration of this fact in that Japanese makes no phonemic distinction between alveolar fricative and dental fricative. While the difference in /s/ and /θ/, therefore, is obvious to the ear of a native speaker of English it is not so obvious to the ear of a native speaker of Japanese. Since Japanese /s/ is mainly dental in articulation, confusion with the English dental fricative /θ/ is a natural consequence. The teacher, therefore, must be aware that not only is English /θ/ alien to Japanese, but English /s/ is, strictly speaking, alien as well, and needs to be taught. The 'th' difficulty will not be solved while the student continues to give a dental articulation to English /s/.

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[3] But see Horita (1936) who says it is the upper teeth which are involved.

Sea Sells She-Shells: Confusing 's' and 'sh'

Most Japanese consonants, as we will explain, are followed by the vowels /a/, /i/, /u/, /e/ or /o/. In the case of /s/, however, the pattern is *sa, shi, su, se, so.* In other words, before /i/, the /s/ phoneme changes to a sound resembling /ʃ/. This could be interpreted simply as a rule of Japanese phoneme sequence. Given, however, the configuration of the tongue for Japanese /s/, it is more likely that the cause for the apparent anomaly before /i/ is phonetic rather than phonemic. In other words, with the tongue low in the mouth, in contact with the front (and I suggest, lower) teeth and with little or no grooving, there is light but widespread friction over a number of areas as the lower and upper mouth come together for the close front articulation of /i/. The result is the sound resembling /ʃ/. As if to emphasize the fact that it is the same Japanese /s/, only in a close front position, romanized systems of Japanese, apart from the familiar Hepburn system, express the combination as *si* rather than as *shi.*

When the vowel that follows is a vowel other than close front, Japanese in fact distinguishes /s/ from /ʃ/, for example in *sōsetsu* (general argument) and *shōsetsu* (novel), in *sūgaku* (mathematics) and *shūgaku* (study). It is a problem, clearly, of phoneme perception in the case of *she* and *si*, as distinguished in English. The Japanese perceives the initial sound of both utterances as /s/.

The result is that Japanese learners have difficulty in distinguishing between *sea* and *she*, *sip* and *ship*, *seal* and *she'll* and other words where a high front vowel is involved. Likewise, they have difficulty in the articulation of words where /s/ precedes a high front vowel, as in *seek*, *seem*, *receipt*, *conceited*, etc. I will refer again to these difficulties in a later section.

Japanese /s/ and the Influence of General Phonological Patterns

Japanese has an extremely simple (C)V syllabic system (consonant plus vowel or vowel only). All of the consonants of the language, syllabic /n/ being the only exception, must be followed by one of the five vowels of the language, /i/, /e/, /a/, /o/ or /u/. In some cases, the vowel that follows a voiceless consonant is a voiceless (or 'whispered') vowel. Hinds (1986) says, "Although Japanese is typically described as a CVCV language, because high vowels are voiceless or even dropped out between voiceless consonants, some rather complicated word initial voiceless consonant clusters may exist." However, I suggest that the idea of consonant clusters in Japanese should be viewed with skepticism. It is safer, for pedagogical purposes, to assume that a vowel, voiceless or not, is always present. The Japanese speaker has difficulty, therefore, in conceiving of an 's' sound on its own. For him, or her, the sound is *sa*, *shi*, *su*, *se* or *so*. It may well be indeed that to a Japanese the term "fricative" does not have the continuous connotation that it has for speakers of languages, including English, which have a different syllabic structure.

An interesting illustration of this problem is described in a spectographical investigation carried out among dialect speakers on the pronunciation of /d/ and /z/ (Sugito et al, 1985). Japanese /z/ is usually looked upon as the voiced equivalent of Japanese /s/. It is almost always described as an alveolar fricative (see Bloch, ibid.). However, one of the basic assumptions of Sugito and her fellow investigators is stated in the opening sentence of the investigation. "The Japanese consonants /za/, /zi/, /zu/, /ze/, and /zo/ are generally not fricatives but affricates." While such an observation cannot by any means be transferred to the voiceless equivalent of the sound in question it is nevertheless significant that one of the areas of interest to the investigators was that of consonantal duration. In the case of dialect speakers, "Their fricative [z]s are too short in duration and too weak to be heard as /z/." It seems to me that between English /s/ and Japanese /s/ also there is a difference in duration and therefore in fricative quality and that this difference is due in some part to the typical CVCV pattern of Japanese phonology.

Some Implications for Teaching

a) *Reducing dependence on the mother tongue:* At the beginning of foreign language study the student tends to have a narrow perception of the auditory effects which his own speech organs are capable of producing. He is usually limited to his experience with the mother tongue. Aware of this psychological barrier, the teacher should endeavor to reduce dependence on the mother tongue by helping the student "to awareness of the distinct and separate parameters or scales along which auditory effects are capable of varying" (MacCarthy: 1978). In his book (ibid: 15ff) MacCarthy suggests various methods for doing this, beginning with material "not taken from any actual language." These should be regarded as preliminary to the task of tackling particular pronunciation problems such as the one we are dealing with here.

b) *Teaching /s/ as a new sound:* The teacher should try to make the student aware at least of the fact that English /s/ differs in articulation from Japanese /s/. Three of the points mentioned earlier should be stressed: i) for English /s/ the tongue is raised higher in the mouth than for the Japanese equivalent, ii) there is no dental contact when articulating English /s/ and iii) friction, much stronger in English /s/ than in Japanese /s/, is produced by contact between the tongue and alveolar ridge, the air being forced out through a narrow groove. Care should particularly be taken where dental and/or alveolar articulations are contiguous, as in *It's a pen, That's right, moths and myths,* etc. To help students find the English sound initially the suggestion of a well-known pronunciation manual is worth trying. For example, O'Connor (1980) states: "There will be a sound similar to /s/ in your language: make this sound, then keep your mouth in that position and draw air inwards; make small changes in the position of the tip and blade of the tongue until you can feel that the cold air is hitting the tongue at the very center of the alveolar ridge, not further forward and not further back." Having found the sound, the student should be encouraged to practice a friction that is both vigorous and continuous.

c) *Using minimal pairs:* So long as the teacher is aware of the difficulties his students are encountering, minimal pairs practice is a meaningful exercise. Words like *sing, sick, sum, seem, mouse* and *useful* can be usefully contrasted in teacher-student and student-student interaction with *thing, thick, thumb, theme, mouth* and *youthful.* Words like *seal, see, seat, sin* and *receipt* can be practices in contrast to *she'll, she, sheet, shin* and *re-sheet.*

d) *Phrases in contrast:* To ensure that the sounds are not simply practiced in isolation, phrase pairs and sentence pairs should be introduced as well. *The student is thinking/sinking, they're looking for the path/pass, the moss/moth was turning yellow* and others which the teacher can make for himself, are useful and entertaining exercises. The same kind of contrasts can be devised for the /ʃ/-/s/ distinction.

e) *Hearing it and saying it:* The teacher must keep in mind that the purpose of these exercises is to teach aural recognition as well as articulation. Close attention to both areas is important.

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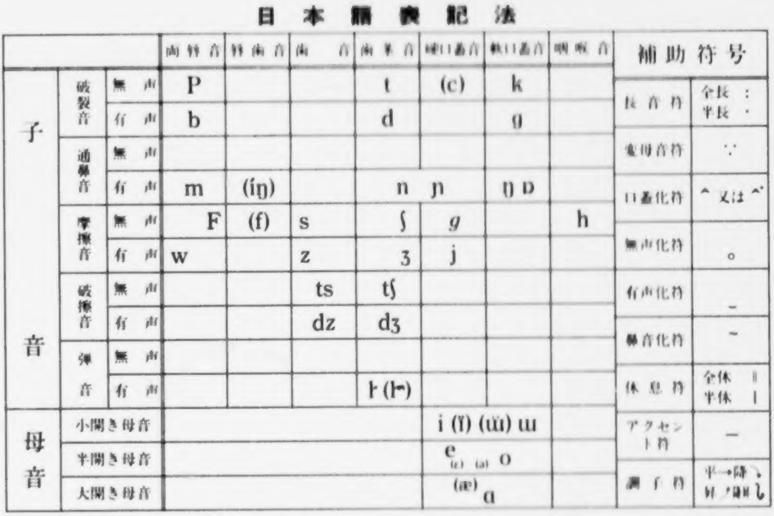
APPENDIX

place manner	Bilabial	Dental	Alveolar	Alveolar-palatal	Palatal	Velar	Glottal
Plosive	p, b	t, d	r			k, g	
Affricate			ts, (dz)	tʃ (dʒ)			
Fricative	(ɸ)		s, z	(ʃ), (ʒ)	(ç)		h
Nasal	m	n		(ɲ)		(ŋ)	
Semi-vowel					j	w	

Fig. 1 The consonants of Japanese, according to M. Fukaya et al: *Specialist Report (Senkenkyuhobun)* 14, p.220. Note that /s/ is shown as an alveolar fricative.

		Bilabial			Labio-dental			Inter-dental			Alveolar			Alveo-palatal			Velar			Glottal		
		Eng.	Jap.	Kor.	Eng.	Jap.	Kor.	Eng.	Jap.	Kor.	Eng.	Jap.	Kor.	Eng.	Jap.	Kor.	Eng.	Jap.	Kor.	Eng.	Jap.	Kor.
Stops	vl.	p	p	p,pʰ,p'							t	t	t,tʰ,t'				k	k	k,kʰ,k'			
	vd.	b	b								d	d					g	g				
Affricates	vl.													č	č	c,cʰ,c'						
	vd.													ǰ	ǰ							
Fricatives	vl.				f			θ			s	s	s,s'	š	š					h	h	h
	vd.				v			ð			z	z		ž	ž							
Nasals		m	m	m							n	n	n				ŋ		ŋ			
Laterals											l		l		r							
Glides			w	w							r			y	y	y	w					

Fig. 2 The consonant phonemes of English, Korean and Japanese, according to Y. Onozawa: A contrastive analysis of English, Korean and Japanese Phonemic systems. 1977. *Obirin Junior College Bulletin 17*, p.201. The chart, according to a footnote, is based on S. Kimizuka: *Teaching English to Japanese*. Los Angeles: Anchor Enterprises, 1968, p.52. Note that Japanese /s/ is shown as an alveolar fricative.



日本語表記法

			両唇音	唇歯音	歯音	歯茎音	硬口蓋音	軟口蓋音	咽喉音
子音	破裂音	無声	P			t	(c)	k	
		有声	b			d		ɡ	
	通鼻音	無声							
		有声	m	(ıŋ)		n	ɲ	ŋ ɴ	
	摩擦音	無声	F	(f)	s	ʃ	*g*		h
		有声	w		z	ʒ	j		
	破擦音	無声			ts	tʃ			
		有声			dz	dʒ			
	弾音	無声							
		有声				ɾ (ɾ̃)			
母音	小開き母音						i (ï) (ɯ̈) ɯ		
	半開き母音						e (ε) (ə) o		
	大開き母音						(æ) ɑ		

補助符号	
長音符	全長 ː 半長 ˑ
重母音符	∵
口蓋化符	^ 又は ^
無声化符	ₒ
有声化符	‗
鼻音化符	~
休息符	全休 ‖ 半休 |
アクセント符	─
調子符	平→降 ↘ 昇 ↗降 ↘

Fig. 3 The sounds of Japanese, according to the Phonetic Society of Japan (Bulletin, April 1986). /s/ is shown as a dental fricative.

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Bright Ideas

I've Got Your Number: A Quantitative Information Exchange Exercise

Gary Fallow and Jim Cyborowski

Our goal was to create an activity which would allow our students to exchange quantitative information on the telephone. In our case, the students were business persons who were studying English in a month-long intensive program in preparation for overseas assignments. We wanted to design an activity that would allow students to give and receive quantitative information in a realistic situation.

Although this activity works best using real telephones in separate rooms, it can also be adapted as a back-to-back pair activity. The important consideration is that students do not have visual cues to aid communication.

Procedure:

Our participants were two groups of students of approximately the same linguistic level, totaling 12-16 people. For a group of this size, the activity lasted about an hour. Students in each group were asked to write five statements containing numerical data of at least four digits (e.g. 2,476 employees, 123.4 meters, 52,475 tons of steel, etc.). Since our students were business people, many submitted statements related to their jobs or companies.

After the statements were corrected, the two teachers randomly selected two statements from among the five collected from each student. The statements were rewritten on cards omitting the numerical data. This random selection fit in with the realistic setting we wanted to provide, since people do not usually expect a particular question to be asked. Prior to exchanging the cards

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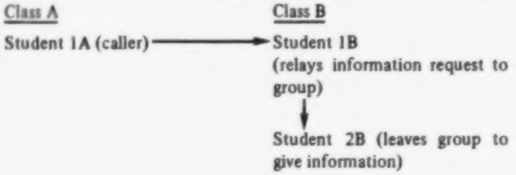
between the two classes, the statements were prefaced by: "Find out..."

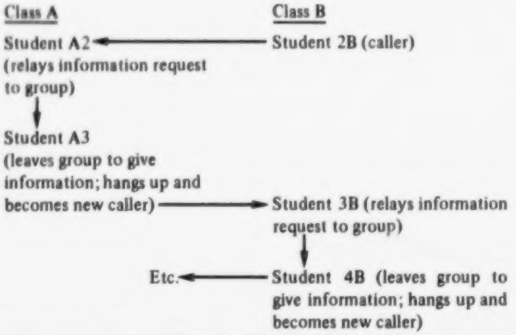
> Example:
>
> (Statement submitted by student)
> "Kawasaki Steel produced 52,475 tons of steel last year."
>
> (Statement rewritten by teacher)
> "Find out the number of tons of steel produced by Kawasaki Steel last year." or
> "Find out how much steel was produced by Kawasaki Steel last year."

In order to ensure that each student plays the roles of:
- the caller (the questioner)
- the person who picks up the phone (the relayer of request for information)
- the person who gives the information (the person called to the phone)

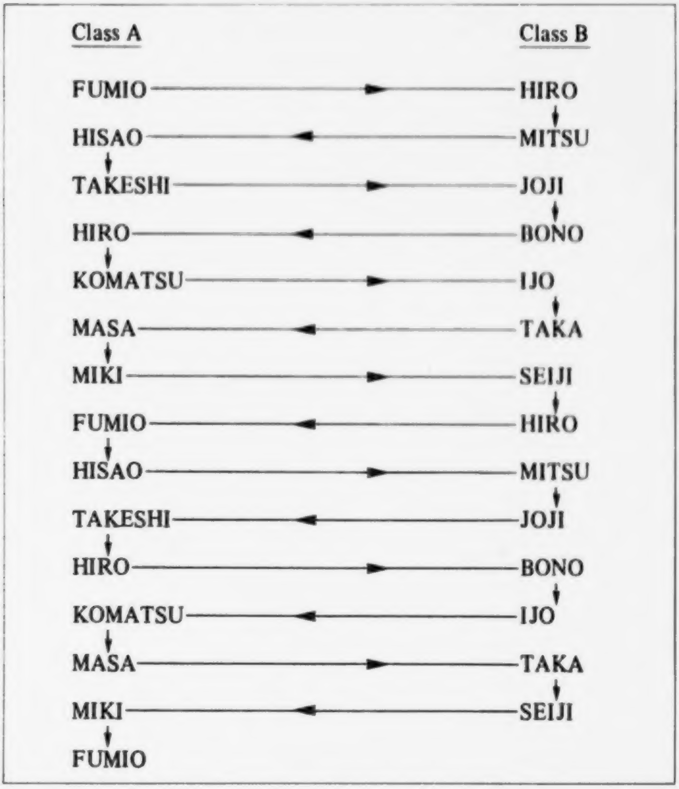
the order of the phone calls and the role of each student must be carefully planned. See diagram below:


Class A
Class B
Student 1A (caller)
Student 1B
(relays information request to group)
Student 2B (leaves group to give information)

In order to use time most efficiently, the person who has given information then hangs up and places the next call. In the case above, Student 2B would then become the new caller. See diagram below:


Class A
Class B
Student A2
(relays information request to group)
Student 2B (caller)
Student A3
(leaves group to give information; hangs up and becomes new caller)
Student 3B (relays information request to group)
Etc.
Student 4B (leaves group to give information; hangs up and becomes new caller)

PHONE RELAY SYSTEM EXAMPLE:


Class A
Class B
FUMIO
HIRO
HISAO
MITSU
TAKESHI
JOJI
HIRO
BONO
KOMATSU
IJO
MASA
TAKA
MIKI
SEIJI
FUMIO
HIRO
HISAO
MITSU
TAKESHI
JOJI
HIRO
BONO
KOMATSU
IJO
MASA
TAKA
MIKI
SEIJI
FUMIO

While the students are waiting for their phone calls, they should be involved in some kind of pair or group activity. For example, one teacher conducted a business meeting during which students were called to the phone. The other class was divided into two groups. Each group listened to different tapes of numbers in context, exchanging the information with the other group afterwards. The point is that the students be engaged in some kind of activity which is interrupted by phone calls.

After the activity, the classes meet face-to-face to confirm the information they have exchanged.

Since this is a student-centered activity, the teacher serves as a counselor/facilitator. While a student is talking on the phone, the teacher might act as a monitor ensuring that appropriate language and polite expressions are being used. The teacher might take note of common errors to be discussed in a feedback session after the activity.

We have found that students enjoy the activity and appreciate its value in providing a real-life situation in the classroom. They have the opportunity to exchange numerical information in a realistic context rather than in a structured exchange of isolated numbers. Most importantly, the activity develops confidence in the students' ability to perform a variety of functions both on the telephone and in face-to-face situations.

APPENDIX
LINGUISTIC OBJECTIVES

We designed the activity to include the following linguistic objectives:

Using polite and appropriate expressions for:

- interrupting a large group:
  "Excuse me, everyone . . . "
  "May I have your attention, please?"
  "Pardon me for interrupting . . . "
- excusing oneself when leaving a group:
  "Pardon me, please. I have a telephone call."
  "Will you excuse me for a moment?"
- appropriate rejoinders:
  "Certainly."
  "Of course."
- rejoining a group after an interruption:
  "Sorry to keep you waiting."
  "Thank you for waiting. Shall we continue?"
- relaying a request for information:
  "Does anyone have information on ___________?"
  "Does anyone know about ___________?"

Using polite and appropriate telephone language for:

- seeking information when the provider of the information is unknown:
  "I'm looking for information on ___________."
- asking for repetition or concessions for speed:
  "Would you please repeat that?"
  "Could you say that more slowly please?

- leaving the telephone:
- checking, correcting, and confirming information:
  "No, I'm sorry, that should be__________."
  "That's right/correct."
- repeating information with a question intonation:
  "Did you say________?
  "Is that________?
- requesting additional information:
  "Excuse me, I have another question, if you don't mind."

Question formation related to:

- numerical data:
  "What is the number of/size of________?"
  versus: "How many/much . . . . . ?"
- countable and non-countable nouns:
  "How much lumber/electricity/water . . . ?"
  versus: "How many board-feet/kilowatt-hours/liters . . . ?
- degrees of politeness:
  "Please tell me . . . "
  "Could you tell me . . . ?"
  "I'm looking for information on__________. Can you help me?
  "I wonder if you could help me locate information about______.

QUANTITATIVE TELEPHONE EXCHANGE

A = person who picks up the phone (relayer of request for information)
B = caller (the questioner)
C = person who has the information (person called to the phone)

A: Good afternoon, (Name of Company/section/division), (This is) (name). May I help you?

B: Yes. I'm looking for information on/about/concerning______________.

A: One moment, please. Will you hold?/Please hold (the line).

B: Certainly/Of course/Yes

A: (To his group in a loud voice) Excuse me, may I have your attention, please? Pardon me for interrupting. Does anyone have information on ________________.

C: Yes, I do.

(To his group): Will/Would you excuse me for a moment, please? / Excuse me for a moment/minute, please.

C: Hello, this is __(Name)__. May I help you?

B: Yes. (This is __(Name)__.) Could you tell me __________________?

C: Yes. (GIVE THE INFORMATION).

B: I'm sorry, could you repeat that more slowly, please?

C: Yes. (REPEAT THE INFORMATION).

B: Thank you. Excuse me, I have another question if you don't mind.

C: Yes? (RISING INTONATION)

B: (ASKS NEXT QUESTION)

C: (ANSWERS)

B: (CONFIRMS) Is that __________?/Did you say __________?

C: That's right. Is there anything else?

B: No. Thank you for your help/assistance/time.

C: You're welcome.

B: Good-bye.

C: Good-bye.

(Back at his group): Thank you for waiting. Shall we continue? OR Sorry for the interruption. Shall we continue?

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Video Review

MUZZY IN GONDOLAND. Wendy Harris. England: BBC English by Television. 1986.

"How do you do. I'm the king. I'm the king of Gondoland." So begins a fairytale that can brighten your ESL/EFL children's classes, *Muzzy in Gondoland*. This story about a royal family and a space visitor to Gondoland presents English in a medium children love—cartoons.

With the popularity of video in the classroom, it is becoming increasingly important that teachers are aware of what to look for in a quality video. The following are some of the criteria that *Muzzy in Gondoland* fills.

Length – Teachers must consider the attention span of their students, especially children, when investing in video materials. For small children, no more than 5 to 10 minutes in one showing is a good rule. *Muzzy* is divided into six parts, each part being roughly 15 minutes long. However, the parts are divided into scenes or segments which run from 30 seconds to 2 minutes in length. With this format, the teacher can easily divide each episode into a suitable number of units tailored to the time available and age and ability of the students.

Subject/plot – The story line should be simple, yet interesting, which describes *Muzzy* exactly. Scenes are often amusing and even instructors will enjoy watching them.

Characters – For children, it is very important that characters be entertaining and easy to identify. In *Muzzy*, we have the king, who is strong, yet kind; the queen, who loves to eat; the good guy, Bob, who is in love with the princess; and the bad guy, Corvax, who, of course, is also in love with the princess. And then there is loveable *Muzzy*, who captures the hearts of eveyone. At intervals, another cartoon character, Norman, appears. He explains the important grammar points in a simple, yet appealing way.

Exploitability – A video should contain a manageable amount of study material, not so much that teacher and students are overwhelmed, and not so little that an instructor is left frantically searching for filler activities. With the workbooks, there is sufficient material in *Muzzy* to fill each lesson, and each scene teaches something new. Moreover, the clear format makes it easy to design lesson plans that expand on the material introduced in the video.

Graphics – Today's students see high-quality animated programs on television and at the movies, and can sometimes be quite particular about what they watch. Therefore, providing a video with quality graphics in the ESL/EFL classroom is a plus. The graphics in *Muzzy* are very professional, and appealing. In my classes, there was hardly a student whose eyes were not riveted to the screen.

Recycling – Children are usually quick learners, but many require a great deal of repetition in order to retain what they have learned in their long-term memory. *Muzzy* does this thoughtfully, recycling vocabulary and structures that were presented in earlier scenes. However, the material still requires substantial classroom reinforcement, especially in the latter half of the video, since dialogues become lengthier.

Actual language – When using videos, it is important not to lose sight of the fundamental goal, i.e., language learning. A video could have many of the qualities described here, but still not measure up in this critical area. The teacher should consider what needs to be taught, and make sure that the video fills these requirements. *Muzzy* teaches not only fundamental vocabulary and grammar, but also functions, such as introducing oneself, requesting, and making offers.

Adaptability to levels – It is often difficult to find a video that caters to a variety of levels of ability. *Muzzy* is a good exception. One can easily expand on specific scenes for lower levels, or move quickly through easier sections for higher levels.

Suited to age – Some videos for teaching children try to simplify the content. The result is often below the mentality of the students, and thus does not hold their interest. *Muzzy* is ideally suited for children aged 7 to 12. However, younger children will also enjoy watching it, provided it is presented in shorter sections. It also works well with children aged 12 to 14, though they can generally move through it quickly. I have even shown it to high school classes. They seem to enjoy the story, as well as the chance to watch a program in English that they can easily understand.

Support material – It is a good idea to choose a video that comes as a set, including auxiliary texts and workbooks. This saves the teacher much time making supplementary materials. The *Muzzy* set includes one videocassette (75 minutes), six activity books, an audiocassette (60 minutes) which includes songs and a talking dictionary, a workbook, a songbook, counters and dice for the games in the activity books, and some notes for parents and teachers. The activities in the workbook appeal to students, and provide excellent written reinforcement of the material premostly focus on development of reading and writing skills. The games are designed for 2-6 players, and do not require a great deal of language. They are, however, a nice break for smaller classes.

Not only is *Muzzy* well-rounded from an educational viewpoint, but it has an advantage: the students love to watch it. On the few occasions when I did not use it in class, many of my students actually requested to watch it. That's what I call passing the test.

Sherri Arbogast

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Announcements

IATEFL 23rd INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCE. March 31-April 3, 1988; Warwick University, Coventry, England. Programs will include presentations in the areas of business English, CALL, learner independence, phonology, teacher development, testing, and video. For further information, please write to: IATEFL, 3 Kingsdown Chambers, Kingsdown Park, Tankerton, Whitstable, Kent, England CT5 2DJ.

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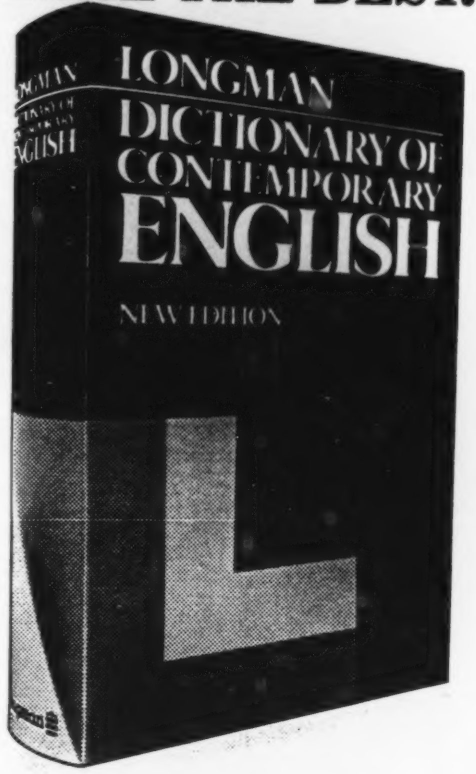

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ABOUT CROSS CURRENTS

Cross Currents is a semi-annual journal published by the Language Institute of Japan in an effort to contribute to an interdisciplinary exchange of ideas within the areas of communication, language skills acquisition and instruction, and cross-cultural training and learning. We are especially interested in articles on 1) Language teaching and learning, particularly regarding English as a Second/Foreign Language and English as an International Language, 2) Language teaching and learning as they apply in Japan, and 3) Cross-cultural communication issues. We also welcome reviews of recently published books in these areas.

* * *

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Summaries of the Articles

In Praise of Intellectual Obscenity or "The Confessions of an Embarrassed Eclectic"

Robert O'Neill

Teachers and researchers are always looking for a theory to explain what happens in the classroom. This article examines Structuralism, Audiolingualism, Krashen's Input Hypothesis, the Notional-Functional Syllabus, and Discourse Analysis, and finds each too limited in its ability to describe language teaching and learning. In the end, O'Neill decides that he can best be described as an eclectic.

Notional Curriculum in an Intensive Course

Robert Ruud

The Language Institute of Japan's Residential Business Communication Program is a four-week intensive, residential, total-immersion, English-only course for business people which has existed for nearly twenty years. In this article, the author traces the history of the LIOJ curriculum and describes it as it exists today. Ruud describes the original "notional" idea behind LIOJ and how it has adapted to this specific program.

Don't Sell Short the Exposition Pattern of Classical Rhetoric

William West

Many English instructors look down on the traditional 5-division pattern of expository composition, preferring to permit students to ramble in a free, serendipitous manner. This article self-consciously teaches the elements of the 5-division form as it models the pattern and demonstrates its effectiveness. It specifically examines the unique backgrounds of trainees at the *Gai Mu Sho Ken Shu Jo* (Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Foreign Service Training Institute) and contrasts Eastern and Western rhetorical patterns.

Teaching Writing and Zen: A Curious Parallel

Phillip Jay Lewitt

In this article, the author examines, and attempts to explain, a perceived relationship between the teaching methods of traditional Zen Buddhism and the teaching methods of process-writing English composition. Lewitt's point of view incorporates experience as a participant-researcher who has practiced as a Zen monk, and as a university-level composition instructor.

Considerations for Japanese EFL Learners Prior to Intensive ESL Programs in the United States: Three Case Studies in Awareness and Motivation

Richard Stone

This article presents three case study profiles of Japanese students who have completed university-affiliated, intensive English language programs and who represent the increasing number of Japanese who are coming to the United States to study. The author claims that prospective Japanese students would benefit from a greater awareness of what to expect from ESL programs and an examination of their attitudes, motivations, and learning styles. In addition, Stone offers comments and advice for future Japanese ESL students to consider in order to help them make more informed decisions.

Bright Idea

Turning "English Conversation" into Communication

Mary E. Whitsell

This Bright Idea looks at ways to help Japanese students communicate *with* rather than talk *at* people from other countries, on the basis of mutual understanding and sharing of information. There are a series of exercises designed to help students identify and talk about generalizations or stereotypes they have about foreign residents in Japan, and to help them distinguish between conversational themes appropriate when talking to tourists in Japan and those more suited to foreign residents in Japan. In addition, there are several ideas and a number of exercises on how to help students engage in co-responsive conversations in English, as opposed to simple question-answer "conversations."

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ABOUT THIS ISSUE

In this issue, we are pleased to present a number of fine articles dealing with different approaches to English language teaching and writing. In addition, in keeping with our Japanese interests, we have included an article which profiles Japanese students studying abroad, and a Bright Idea which gives practical suggestions on how students in Japan can make conversation truly communicative.

"In Praise of Intellectual Obscenity or 'The Confessions of an Embarrassed Eclectic'" by Robert O'Neill is a fascinating look at the history of English language teaching in general and specifically at the issue of eclecticism. It is also a biting polemic against theoreticians who profess to have discovered the "truth" about how language should be taught.

Robert Ruud, in "Notional Curriculum in an Intensive Course," deals with one of the issues brought up by O'Neill, that of functional-notionalism. He gives an in-depth account of how a notional approach to language teaching has been applied, both in theory and in practice, in the highly successful, intensive, English-only course for business people at the Language Institute of Japan.

"Don't Sell Short the Exposition Pattern of Classical Rhetoric" by William West and "Teaching Writing and Zen: A Curious Parallel" by Phillip Jay Lewitt are insightful articles which both address the issue of teaching writing in English, but from opposing points of view. The former demonstrates and models the effectiveness of the traditional expository pattern, while the latter propounds the notion that writing is an inner process in which students should be allowed creative freedom to develop.

For those readers interested in the ever increasing flow of Japanese students to U.S. colleges to take part in intensive ESL programs, "Considerations for Japanese EFL Learners Prior to Intensive ESL Programs in the United States" by Richard Stone offers some valuable advice. Three case study profiles provide the basis for an examination of how attitudes, motivations, and learning styles affect the success of such students.

Our Bright Idea, "Turning 'English Conversation' into Communication" by Mary E. Whitsell provides suggestions on how to help Japanese students communicate in English *with* people from other countries, rather than just talking *at* them, as well as identifying many common stereotypes that the Japanese often hold in regard to foreigners.

Finally, this issue includes two book reviews: *Study Listening* by Barbara Hoskins Sakamoto and *BBC Beginners' English* by Keith Hoy.

This will also be the last issue for our departing Editor, Barbara Hoskins Sakamoto. We at *Cross Currents* would like to take this opportunity to thank Barbara for her dedication and hard work throughout her editorship and wish her well in her future endeavors.

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New books for teachers

Understanding Research in Second Language Learning

A teacher's guide to statistics and research design

James Dean Brown

Designed specifically for language teachers with no previous background in statistics, this book focuses on the skills and processes necessary for understanding and critically reading statistical research in language learning. Brown explains the basic terms of statistics; the structure and organisation of statistical research reports; the system of statistical logic; and how to decipher tables, charts and graphs.

'This book does an excellent job of filling a major gap in the publications available in our field.'
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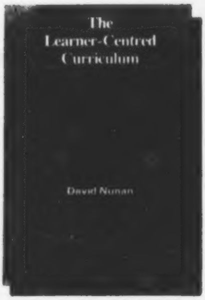
New Directions in Language Teaching

The Learner-Centred Curriculum

David Nunan



Traditionally, the curriculum has been regarded as the statement of what *should* be done in a course of study. This book takes as its starting point what *is* done by language teachers in their classes. The concept of a negotiated model is developed, in which the curriculum is arrived at collaboratively between teachers and learners.

The author looks at the curriculum from the teacher's perspective, and reports on what teachers focus on in the planning, implementation and evaluation of language courses.

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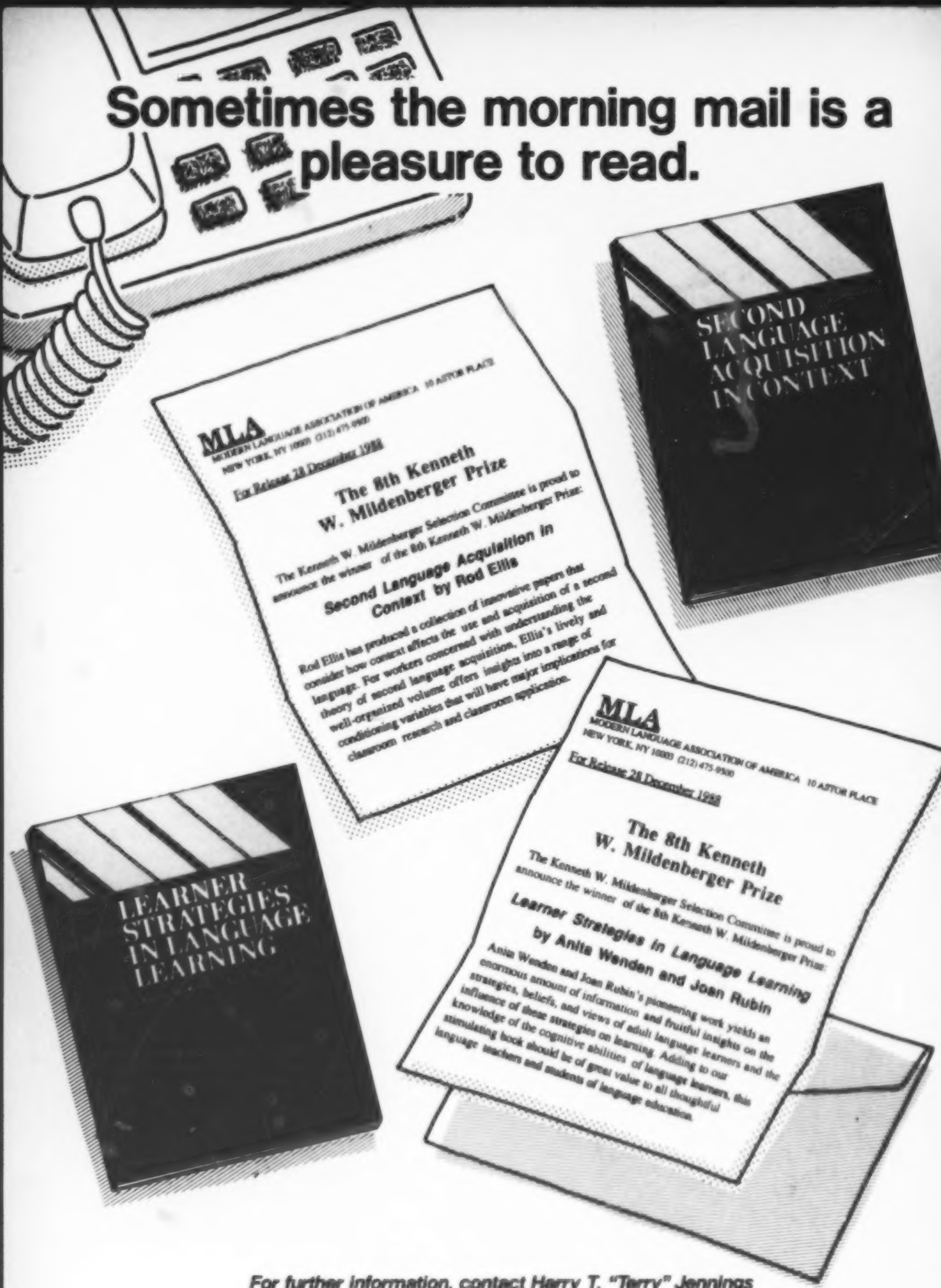
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Cross Currents
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In Praise of Intellectual Obscenity or "The Confessions of an Embarrassed Eclectic"

Robert O'Neill

> I am anxious, insecure, and always afraid of being wrong. What is worse, I am always afraid that the person who says I am wrong is better than I am. ...That is why I like to write for the newspapers, to reread myself the next day, and to read the reactions of others. A difficult game, because it does not always consist of being reassured when you meet with agreement and having doubts when you are faced with dissent. Sometimes you have to follow the opposite course: distrust agreement and find in dissent the confirmation of your own intuitions. There is no rule; there is only the risk of contradiction.
>
> Umberto Eco – *Travels in Hyper-reality*

I, too, am anxious and insecure. I suspect that this is a healthy state to be in, particularly today. As they say in Northern Ireland, "Anyone who isn't confused doesn't know what is going on here!"

One of the things I am anxious and insecure about is the theoretical basis of the language materials I write and the *raison d'etre* for the things I do when I teach. A theory I could believe in–a set of goals–some kind of "scientific assurance" that the methods and techniques I am using are at least credible–any of these things would be more than welcome. To put it another way, perhaps the reason I need a theory–and spend so much time looking for one–is not really to tell me what to do, but rather to help me make sense of what happens when I do it.

Robert O'Neill is author of *Kernel Series*, *English in Situations*, and *Lost Secret*. He has been active in the ESL field for the past thirty years as a teacher.

When I was teaching back in the 60s, the theory or approach which was most commonly used to justify what happened was something called "structuralism." Or rather, it is the term most commonly used to describe today what language teachers thought they were doing or were supposed to be doing then. I don't think this term is really appropriate at all, but I shall come back to that later.

Today, as we crawl or stumble towards the 21st Century, there is a healthy variety of theory and method in language teaching, far more than there was 20 or 30 years ago, or probably at any time in the past. Despite this–or perhaps because of it–few teachers are prepared to teach totally within the confines of a particular method or theory. Even teachers who go through a period of almost religious dedication to the Silent Way usually emerge at the end no doubt wiser and better for the experience but hardly rigorous in its application. To some observers this is even more deplorable than those teachers who profess to disdain all formal theory and method.

Stephen Krashen is reported to have described Eclecticism as an "intellectual obscenity"–and yet it seems that the term "eclectic" is the only adjective that can describe with any accuracy the intellectual basis of language teaching in the late 80s. Am I reflecting only my own skepticism towards theories which claim to have an empirical and scientific basis when I say that this kind of eclecticism is not necessarily unprincipled opportunism? Neither do I think it is a hostility to theory as such, although I believe I detect among many teachers who care and think about what they do a current of distrust towards theorists who are always eager to tell us what we should be doing but cannot themselves be lured into the classroom or induced to undergo what Karl Popper refers to in another context as a "detailed confrontation with reality." Can I, I wonder, really claim that it is this kind of confrontation which ordinary language teachers accept as an ordinary part of their ordinary working lives which leads to this eclecticism?

If there is any one particular label that teachers use today to describe their approach more than any other, it is probably the label "communicative." This however, usually turns out to be more eclectic–and often even more unprincipled–than those who are content to be abused as eclectics. What, indeed, does the term "communicative" mean? To borrow Chris Brumfit's remarks about humanism and his reluctance to use that term, if some teachers say they teach "communicatively", where are the teachers who would say they do so "uncommunicatively?"

At a conference in Paris, John Soares recently reported the remark of a young teacher who told him, "I never use grammar. I teach communicatively." "That," as John added, "was the end of the conversation. There was nothing either of us could say." The term is meaningless. Everybody who thinks seriously about their own teaching would claim they were teaching students to "communicate." And so, probably, would just about every teacher who cannot be bothered to think at all. Teachers who use Grammar-Translation exclusively would–and did–claim that this is the only way their students can learn to communicate. Teachers frozen in the culture and attitudes of behaviouristic Audio-lingualism and Pattern Practice Drills no doubt would claim that it is only through such "habit-forming" that their students can "be free to think not about the structure or the mechanics of the message, but about the message itself." This is what the most eminent American linguist and grammarian of his time, Charles Fries, claimed in the preface to *English Pattern Drills* thirty years ago. If this is true, is it not "communicative" to teach through Pattern Drills? If it is argued that the claim is patently untrue, and that therefore Pattern Practice and the so-called "structuralism" that underlies it cannot be called communicative, then where is the proof that some other "communicative" approach leads to true competence in a foreign language?

There is, of course, one person at least who claims such empirical evidence for his theories: Stephen Krashen. The classic "hard" version of his theory is that there is one way and one way only in which people acquire a foreign language, and that is through optimal comprehensible input. Grammar is either useless or definitely harmful. There is no evidence whatsoever that all the role-plays, open-ended exercises, discussion, question-answering, and all the other things that teachers employ to encourage students to use what they understand has the slightest effect on learning. The only thing that helps is lots and lots and lots and more and more "comprehensible input" which to be "optimal" should always be a little above the learner's present stage of competence but never beyond her or his capacity to get the general sense.

Personally, I have not seen much evidence that teachers are willing or able to use the classic, hard version of this theory. If there is one common characteristic among self-styled "communicative" teachers, it seems to be a reluctance to speak to the class at all, let alone read aloud to them, or use their own voices and undoubtedly superior pronunciation of the foreign language so that students can from time to time actually hear a reasonably natural model of the language they are learning. The only voices most students in many of these "communicative" classrooms are likely to hear are their own, or the equally defective model of the person sitting next to them. Laudable, you might argue. At least students are getting plenty of practice, and I, unlike Krashen, would be the last to argue that this practice is not extremely useful, even essential. However, as much as I disagree with Krashen that "optimal input" is the *only* path towards acquisition, I happen to agree very much with him about the need for "input" itself. I mean not only "text" in textbooks but the informal type that students get when they hear the teacher regularly speaking in short but complete units of discourse. I believe you give valuable–no, essential–input when you describe to the class what you did last weekend or when you talk about the place you were born and where you grew up before you ask the class to do the same thing. I think of all the informal, brief "spoken paragraphs" which teachers can use as models for the students' own production as essential to language teaching, and I am constantly astounded when I see teachers refusing to do this because they associate it with being "teacher-centred." This certainly makes me very much an eclectic. Here I am borrowing or welcoming one aspect of a dominant and well-articulated contemporary theory of language-teaching as argued by one of the most polished, persuasive, and witty speakers of his time, and yet rejecting the central thesis itself–that it is only through such comprehensible input that we can acquire a foreign language.

Before I give my reasons for this "unprincipled position," let me turn briefly in the one other direction today that might seem to offer guidance and salvation, if not of my soul, at least of my desire to be regarded as something more than an unprincipled opportunist. This is a turn in the direction from which the term "communicatively" came in the first place. It is a turn in the direction of the Functional-Notional approach. It is easy for anyone to claim that they are being "communicative," but something quite different to claim that you are teaching the kind of language that can be shown to be compatible with students' true "needs."

There is nothing wrong about thinking in the communicative categories we find in a list of functions. There is nothing wrong in locating the language we teach in contexts and examples we think are most likely to be useful to those we teach. There is nothing wrong, that is, in applying the common sense to language teaching that David Wilkins is now justly famous for in his *Notional Syllabuses* (Oxford University Press, 1976). The only thing that is wrong with this is to describe it as a syllabus. Perhaps it depends on what we mean by a "syllabus." Is a syllabus a list of categories it is advisable or essential to include *among a number of other elements?* Or does it also include within it some idea of a progression, a series of steps that not only helps define a system but gives us some *insight into the inner workings* of that system?

In the second sense, there is little in anything written about Functions and Notions, even in Wilkins' own book, which can be called a syllabus. Who today would want to deny that it is useless to teach language only as a series of "structures" and to show no interest in the ways, meanings, and situations with which those structures are most commonly associated? But who would seriously claim that pointing to the uses we make of language is the same thing as explaining how we come to use it creatively, independently, and adaptively for our own personal uses? If I tell you that "should" is used, among other things, to give advice in English, have I no need also to help you adapt that knowledge so that you can say the things you personally want to say? Can you do this without insight into "should" as a structure; for example, into how questions are formed, what kind of verb comes after it, how to make the negative, etc.? And if I decide that this, too, is an essential aspect of communication, how do I go about staging and arranging that knowledge so that you can acquire it? Here, functional-notional syllabuses give us no help at all. Such "syllabuses" are not and do not pretend to be a theory of language use or its acquisition. A theory of language that tells us something about the purposes we use language for, but which tells us nothing about how we learn to use it for those purposes in the first place, is no theory of language at all. It may be useful—even essential—for us to recognise such functional categories, but we cannot use them as our sole guide in deciding when, where, and with what other elements to introduce particular examples of language use.

What I am saying, in short, is this: how we help students develop a variety of insights into the structure of a language is still enormously important and always will be. Unless we do this, everything else we do is simply a message scrawled on the sand, waiting for the next tide to come in and wash it away. Does this make me a structuralist? I am not sure. It is now that I have to come back full-circle to my statement at the beginning: the term "structuralism" has never seemed adequate even to describe what teachers such as myself thought we were doing back in the mid 60s, when structure drills and structural syllabuses were all the rage.

Even then, there was an attempt to relate form to function and meaning. There was, however, no principled description of that relationship, no sets and sub-sets of the primary functions of language use that we should be taking into account as we constructed our syllabuses. All too often those syllabuses themselves, though called "structural" were not really that at all. Structuralism, in its philosophical or sociological sense, is concerned not only with the bare structure of whatever phenomenon it is investigating, but also and primarily with the ways that structure *can affect and even constitute meaning.* In some of the more radical structuralist approaches to literary criticism, the structure is held to be an essential component of that meaning. It dominates not only what we try to express, but also the way we understand what others tell us. How, then, can the term "structuralist" be used to describe the type of syllabus that was associated with Pattern Practice and "habit-formation?" Too often it seemed to have no interest in meaning or even a recognition that it existed. Vocabulary learning was neglected, even decried. Attempts to explain grammar (and thus to give some formal guidance as to how to construct one's own personal utterances–an essential aspect of language use) were never encouraged and sometimes officially prohibited. I do not remember the term "structuralist" being used very much at the time to describe these ideas, although the term "structure" was certainly common enough. A far better term to use retrospectively is "formalist." The term is borrowed from the history of art, where it describes certain types of painting that simply arrange forms but make no attempt to give the arrangements any meaning.

The only other description of such syllabuses might be "structure-based." However, I reject this. I do so because I believe that even today, our syllabuses must be based–*among other things* –on structures. That, however, does not mean the structures can be divorced from their principal uses. When, for example, we teach things like the Present Progressive, we have to show through context and situation how we use this to give warnings (*Look out! Those men are fighting!*), or to get attention to something in the present we regard as important and worth mentioning (*Hey, buddy! You're standing on my foot!*).

Even this is not enough. We have all become more aware in the last twenty years or so of units beyond the sentence–of things referred to today as cohesion and coherence. It is easier to label them than it is to develop effective strategies of helping learners to organise their spoken and written language coherently and cohesively. And it is painfully obvious that lists of functions and notions, as useful as they are in referring to units at and below the sentence level, tell us little or nothing about the larger units of language. Perhaps the only discipline that has ever attempted seriously, not only to define these larger units, but also to come to terms with teaching them, is the now forgotten Art of Rhetoric. We desperately need a modern equivalent of it, and it would seem that the only thing Discourse Analysis has yet delivered is an even more elaborate meta-language for referring to the phenomenon.

Any principled attempt to teach language must take all these things into account. It is as short-sighted and wrong to focus only on the functions and notions we express through language as it is to concentrate solely on the formal means we employ when we do so. What is more, this principled approach involves a series of decisions which go beyond any single theory of language use or acquisition that we have available today. Functional-notionalism has brought us further, but can all too easily become an intellectual dead-end if it is the only guide we use. This, by the way, is recognised nowhere more clearly than in the writings of David Wilkins himself. In a paper read at the Royal Society of Arts' seminar in 1976 and later published in *English For Specific Purposes* (Modern English Publications, 1977), he stated, "It is essential for the learner to achieve some degree of generalisation in what he has learned, and one of the essential elements of generalisation, and I cannot stress too much, is the grammar of the language itself."

This, however, raises another, deeper issue. What are the teaching strategies most likely to be effective in helping learners to "generalise?" This has been a central issue in language teaching for centuries, and nothing that has been said in all the seminars on Functional-Notional syllabuses, Discourse Analysis, or anywhere else has really brought us much further. We are left with only the realisation that Formal Knowledge of a language (for example, verbal knowledge of rules) is totally different from, and often has little or no effect on Performance Knowledge–that vast, little-known area of sub-verbal and non-verbal insights that gives us an instinct for when something is right or wrong.

Formal knowledge of grammar may be useful for some, but not for all, and even for those for whom it is useful, even the best rules can only be regarded as metaphors. They are not the same at all as the knowledge we actually possess which enables us to speak grammatically, but are, at times, crude attempts to picture and represent that knowledge.

Krashen's theory of "optimal-input" is extremely useful here, even though it is undoubtedly incomplete and certainly flawed as a universal account of the way people acquire language. Interestingly enough, flawed, imperfect ideas like Krashen's can lead to far more progress than those with greater verisimilitude. People like Krashen with their immense persuasiveness can move us to try out ideas which we first regard as improbable. In practice, we soon become aware not only of the limits of such ideas but also of how they can be used together with other ideas. Krashen's emphasis on input and content came at a moment when teachers seemed (and still seem) terrified of giving any meaningful input at all, when they were afraid of being called "teacher-centred" or something else equally simplistic and crude. Being a good teacher consists of much more than being or not being student-centred. It is a matter of getting students to confront in a mature way aspects of what they are trying to learn which they would never confront or learn at all without direct intervention at critical moments by the teacher. This intervention may appear at times to a partial or native observer as very "teacher-centred." If "teacher-centred" means the teacher taking control of a lesson at critical stages of its development, of assuming responsibility at times not only for what students do successfully, but for what they fail to do, and trying to correct it–forcibly and with authority if need be–then all of us must be very teacher-centred at times.

But where has all this led me–and where does it leave me now? As far as I can see in the light of my imperfect experience and even more imperfect method of interpreting it, I still have only two choices.

One of these choices is to describe myself perhaps as a "neo-structuralist." It is after all far easier to adapt functions and notions to structures, to focus on structures with clear reference to their functions and uses in every day communication than it is to base teaching on functions and notions alone. If functional-notional teaching means ignoring the structural backbone we need to express anything at all, then I want none of it. If, on the other hand, it means combining functions and notions with the structural building blocks of language, then I might as well come clean about what I am doing. For this, the term "neo-structuralist" is as good as any.

However, if I do this, those who today still use the term "structuralism" with vigour and force in other fields like literary-criticism will no doubt accuse me of lack of rigour. And they will be right. My job as a teacher and a writer is not to describe with detachment the daily events I am involved in for they often have a complexity that defies the categories of any theory I know.

I cannot accept Krashen's empirical proofs because I suspect that the instruments used to collect the proof are very narrow. There seems to me something wrong about regarding as "facts" only those things which our imperfect empirical tools are capable of recording or analysing. I am aware, of course, that this argument could be used to justify a belief in spiritualism and little green men on the moon. But then I am not interested in communicating with my dead relatives or visiting that distant sphere.

What I am interested in is the banal but forceful reality of the young Japanese student I give private lessons to twice a week here in Brighton, and in how I can justify to myself the modest fee I am charging. How can I be sure that what I do and say and elicit from her is worth it? I have, if I am honest, only my intuitions. These intuitions have been partly developed and certainly influenced by what I have heard, read, and seen as a teacher in the last 30 years. I do not choose only what suits me. I am critical of my own methods and beliefs, but am still left with something that at times aims for something far short of relying only on optimal input and which goes beyond the confines of a functional-notional approach.

The conclusion seems both uncomfortable and inescapable. I am an eclectic. I may be embarrassed about it, but it is the only description I can honestly apply to my daily attempts to make sense of what happens when I teach or when I try to produce something which others might be interested in learning from or teaching with. This may be imperfect, but then I live and work in a very imperfect world. I cannot wait for proof from distinguished academics that what I do is respectable. Every hour that I teach I am forced to take simple decisions about simple things that those distinguished academics would not know how to define or interpret if they saw it—which may be one reason some of them show so little interest in contending with it as I have to. I will certainly not ignore what they say nor allow my "practical experience" to lead me to feel smugly superior. I am only too aware that a fool does not learn from experience at all but only goes on repeating it. I can only hope that this is not what I am doing in my obscene eclecticism.

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Notional Curriculum in an Intensive Course

Robert Ruud

Introduction

The Language Institute of Japan's Residential Business Communication Program is a four-week intensive, residential, total-immersion, English-only course for business people. It has existed in slightly changing form for nearly twenty years. Its curriculum pre-dated D.A. Wilkins' *Notional Syllabuses* by several years; nevertheless, it is said to be "notional." In this paper I will trace a brief history of the curriculum and describe it as it exists today. And although the debt owed to the original *Notional Syllabuses* is undeniable, a major purpose of this paper will be to show how the original idea has adapted to a specific program.

History

The original designers of the residential program at LIOJ say that they knew very little about language teaching; that they just wanted to "put people from different countries together and see what would happen." The participants and the teachers in the course were brought together in a situation where interaction was not only encouraged, it was all but unavoidable. Behind the scenes of "putting people from different countries together," of course, teachers were busy organizing activities and planning lessons. However, "putting people together" clearly established interaction as an end as well as a means. Subsequently, emphasis naturally fell on language use and meaning before language form and description,

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despite the difficulty of predicting the outcome of such emphasis in specific or behavioral terms. There would probably be acquisition of morphemes and sub-phonemic particles going on, but this was left somewhat to chance, and there was an unscientific assumption that interaction between well-intended people from different cultures and language backgrounds could have a general positive effect. This interaction would not eliminate differences, but would concentrate on making very different people more practical communicators.

This basic principle of interaction, then, was the foundation of the curriculum for LIOJ's intensive program. The program evolved with Japan, gradually moving toward where the need for communication was most obvious: the business world. With the stronger attachment to business came an increasing need for stricter accountability, both by an increasingly sophisticated clientele, and by teachers trained in the new science of language teaching methodology. It was a thriving curriculum, waiting (though not anxiously) for science to give it a name. Then *Notional Syllabuses* was published. Like the already existing LIOJ curriculum, it advocated a meaning-based teaching plan which accommodated a variety of approaches to classroom teaching. The term "notional" attached itself quickly and securely. Other theories of methodology and language acquisition have had their impact and gradually been absorbed or discarded, but "putting people from different countries together to see what would happen" is still really what is done at LIOJ, and "notional" is what is said about it.

The LIOJ Curriculum Today

In general, the curriculum provides a framework which makes coordinated interaction among teachers and students a matter of course. It does not prescribe what to do in the classroom. Teachers' daily records of how they actually implement the curriculum are used by subsequent teachers, and thus function as a syllabus. But, in general, teachers are encouraged to create these records as well as follow them.

I would now like to describe briefly a number of the important features of this curriculum: Schedule, Perspectives, Notions, Short-term Goals, Sequencing, and Evaluation.

Schedule

Students in the residential program stay on site for most of four weeks (they are allowed to go home on weekends). They take meals with teachers in the cafeteria. Classes begin at 8:30 a.m. and end at 8:00 p.m. Each class has three time slots, each of which has a different teacher. Each also has a different "perspective" on the curriculum: in the morning is Business English Skills (BES), in the early afternoon, Micro, and in the late afternoon, Macro (see descriptions below). The following is a student's typical daily schedule:

8:00 – 8:30	Breakfast
8:30 – 12:10	Business English Skills Class
12:10 – 1:10	Lunch with Teachers
1:10 – 4:00	Micro Class
4:00 – 4:30	Break
4:30 – 6:00	Macro Class
6:00 – 7:00	Dinner with Teachers
7:00 – 8:00	Macro Class

In addition, students and teachers often participate in activities such as parties, nights downtown, and entertainment programs after class in the evening.

Perspectives

In an intensive program in which the students are in class for nearly nine hours a day, change in perspective is good simply for change's sake. In addition, the changes in perspective in the daily schedule in LIOJ's curriculum appeal to some common inclinations and address some common weaknesses students have when they enter the program.

Micro is designed to improve students' ability to understand and speak in sentences, emphasizing questions and answers. Micro focuses on the expression and comprehension of ideas in controlled practice, and on language use in one-to-one situations. The main skills being developed are: controlling conversations with questions (such as "Could you repeat that?", "What does xxx mean?", etc.); initiating, maintaining, and closing conversations; and communicating on the telephone. This perspective combines communication with the exactness our students are used to in studying English.

A typical lesson begins by making a distinction within a particular conceptual area, and exercising various related functions of language. The following is a popular format and sequence (see Fluency Squares in the references as well):

	+	–
A		
B		

Figure 1: Micro Square

The columns depict a simple distinction between positive and negative. The rows would be assigned to two (and eventually all) students. What I will call here information would go into the squares, and could be anything the teacher wanted to focus on. For example, if the teacher wanted to teach the language for expressing likes and dislikes, the information might be kinds of food in a Chinese restaurant. Students would be asked for one item they liked, and one they did not like. (It would also be possible for them to say they didn't like Chinese food at all, or that there was no Chinese food they didn't like.) The result is a grid with two basic dichotomies: positive/negative, Student A/ Student B. In addition, there are specific items from the general category of "kinds of food in a Chinese restaurant." If reference to positive/negative is taken away, yes/no questions can be asked (e.g., "Do you like egg foo yung?"). If reference to Student A/Student B is taken away, "Who" questions can be asked (e.g., "Who likes spring rolls?"). And if the information is hidden, we get back to "What do you like?" and "What don't you like?", "Is there anything you don't like?", etc. There are, of course, many variations possible, including the obvious changes in person.

This very structured exercise introduces a very few basic conceptual distinctions, and is the springboard for the exercise of more functional language, such as "What would you like?", "I don't care so much for Chinese food, so...", "Would you like to order some egg rolls?", etc., that might be part of a real dialogue.

Macro is designed to teach students to comprehend and express main ideas. In listening, the focus is on extended (relative to level), uninterrupted speech. In speaking, the focus is on the organization of ideas. The situational focus is on speaking to a group, and listening as part of a group, where the control language emphasized in Micro may not be appropriate. The main skills being developed are gist understanding, summarizing, organizing explanations, descriptions, etc., and making generalizations and supporting them with examples. A weakness this perspective is designed to address is students' tendency to want to understand every detail or nothing at all, and to want to speak perfectly or not at all. In other words, it is designed to help students overcome their linguistic limitations through recognition of the organization of English speech, in both speaking and listening.

One way a teacher might introduce this strategy of comprehension is to have the students do a simple exercise accompanied by a graphic illustration:

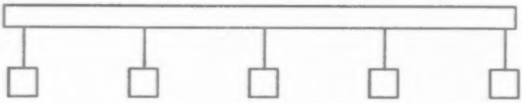

Figure 2: Macro Chart

The exercise might entail the teacher telling the students that they would hear a series of terms, each one of which belonged in one of the lower boxes. Their task would be to decide what to put in the upper box. (Students in this program have usually studied English before, and even very low students are usually capable of such a task, especially if they work together.) The teacher would then read off a list like: Research and Development, Sales, Personnel, Manufacturing, and Advertising. The students would work together to come up with a superordinate term or phrase (such as Departments in a Company). The exercise duplicates the tendency of students to pick out stressed items from what they hear. The point of the exercise is for them to get as many details as they can, rather than to insist on getting them all, and to try to piece together the general meaning from what they have gotten. They apply this basic principle to a variety of listening and summarizing activities throughout the four-week term.

Business English Skills is designed to teach students the language of business. The focus is on the use of English in the students' own business situations. The main skills being developed are presenting, participating in meetings, exchanging business-related information, etc. Students' need for such skills is obvious. This perspective is defined by its content. That is, in the Business English Skills slot students talk about business in general and about their own business in particular, and they use language that they will have to use in their work. Materials and methods vary widely. Presentations and other activities are video-taped and critiqued.

Notions

The term "notional" means, for LIOJ, "meaning-based." While meaning is obviously most important in a program which claims communication as a goal, however, it is not enough to simply say "meaning must come before form." Terms like "notional" and "meaning" in this context must have direct application to the designing of materials and planning of lessons.

It is assumed that whatever any occurrence of language means can be traced to its notional, that is *conceptual* and *functional*, root:

Concepts: Basic units of meaning in the categories of:
  Space (e.g. spatial relations, location, direction, naming, attribution, etc.)
  Time (e.g. past, present, tense and aspect in general, etc.)
  Logic (e.g. induction, deduction, speculation)
Functions: Communicative intent (e.g. greeting, introducing, parting, etc.)

Specific concepts are focused upon each week of the four-week term, from simple to more complex (see Sequencing below). In addition, constant recycling of concepts already exercised, preview of concepts to come, and coordinated coverage by the three slots are essential.

Functions are specified as they pertain both to the communicative needs of the students at the time in the program, such as having to introduce themselves, or invite others to join them in an activity, and to the concepts in focus, such as the natural attachment of the concept of comparison and the function of persuasion.

Short-term Goals

Each week in the four-week term has a focus, stated in both concepts and functions. At the end of the week students make presentations and participate in simulations which exercise the language in focus. These activities are both end products of the week's work, and indicators of students' abilities.

Sequencing

The order of these weekly focuses in based on a rough hierarchy of complexity for concepts, and application to the daily life of the program for functions.

In the first week, teachers diagnose and promote proficiency in the primary concepts of space (naming location), and time (past, present, and future), and simply answering the question "what" (e.g., "What is this/that?", "What do you do?", etc). Naming things is seen as the simplest thing you can do in a language, and the next simplest thing is to attribute simple characteristics, such as physical appearance or position in time, to those things. In business this means *identifying* and *describing* things. The presentation the first week is "Job and Company Description."

The functions in focus are those that are most appropriately exercised in the daily life of the first week of the program, namely: introductions, greetings, invitations, etc.

The next step in the conceptual hierarchy is *comparison*, which is essentially a dual description. The first week focus consists of describing something (company, job, etc.) and establishing a basic time framework (past, present, and future). When students apply what they have learned to more than one product or service in their businesses, they can hardly do so without indicating differences and similarities. The use of these differences and similarities for persuasive effect naturally follows. Thus we have comparison/contrast as a kind of dual description, and the added "function" (meaning "intent") of persuasion.

The functions in focus in this step are defining, comparing, persuading, offering and soliciting opinions, etc.

If we emphasize the passage of time in description in business English, we have the concept of *process*, addressing the questions "How?" and "What for?" The emphasis is shifted from basic space concepts to time concepts, on purposeful change over time. This is much more complex than simply establishing things in time or space, which is the basic framework for both description and comparison. (Of course, processes can also be compared, and frequently are as a way of recycling.) Process language also entails simple description, and often includes comparison as well. It also usually entails a historical or time perspective, establishing points in time within the larger dynamic time framework, and tracing them through a time sequence. The links in this chain of events are causes and effects, and the question "how" and the language of explanation are main features of the speech.

The function in focus here is explaining and emphasizing organization and key phrases. For example:

> In order to understand how this works, it must be clear that this is xxx, not yyy. (identification)
> It is made of xxx, and therefore...(design, character, nature, make-up)
> It works in much the same way as...(analogy)
> This part functions as a...(purpose)
> That's because of this new element here, which is...(cause-effect)

The final conceptual focus is *problem analysis* and speculation. Causes and effects of known problems, anticipated problems, and proven and possible solutions are the main subjects of discussion. What makes problem analysis complex is that it is abstract and relies on the expression of logical relationships. It entails all of the previous areas of focus, stemming from description and basic factual time to the complex cause/effect relationship of process. But what it adds is of a more abstract nature: talking about things that do not exist in reality or are contrary to fact. Tracing the possible causes of a problem and the effects of possible responses to it entails describing things, comparing alternatives, and tracing processes, but emphasizes the abstract and the conditional, and relies on logic.

The functions in focus are those that are most easily exercised in the fourth week of the program, such as closing, parting, etc.

Week	Concept Focus	Function Focus	Goal
1	Description: Present/Past/Future, etc. Location, Direction, etc. General/Specific	Control Language, Greetings, Introductions, Invitations, Thanking, etc.	Presentation/ Simulation: *My Job and Company*
2	Comparison: State/Events, Frequency, etc. Character, Nature, Make-up, etc. Modality, Quality (Review/Recycle others)	Defining, Persuading, Offering and Soliciting Opinions, etc. (Review/Recycle others)	Presentation/ Simulation: *Comparison*
3	Process: Cause-Effect, Action-Consequence, Passive (Review/Recycle others)	Explanation (Review/Recycle others)	Presentation/ Simulation: *Process*
4	Problem Analysis: Problem/Reason/Solution Conditional (Review/Recycle others)	Synthesizing, Closure, Parting (Review/Recycle others)	Presentation/ Simulation: *Problem Analysis*

Figure 3: Curriculum Calendar

Evaluation

The evaluation system consists of assessments of linguistic, skill, and communicative abilities. Although some aspects of evaluation in a notional curriculum are readily accomplished by conventional tests, it is also important to assess how effective "putting people together and seeing what happens" is. To this end, familiarity is just as important as reliability. In other words, as well as getting some good objective information through standard testing procedures, we have to be able to say that we know the student well. Regardless of the grounding of our tests in science, they cannot really tell us very much about how well students will get along with foreigners in the international work place, or how well they will perform tasks which require making the right impression as well as using the correct verb form. Familiarity cannot simply be factored into the testing apparatus: it must be gained through interaction over a long enough period of time.

After that period of time, in addition to taking the conventional battery of objective tests, students are evaluated on scales in the general categories of linguistic ability and business skills (see samples in appendix).

Teachers then write the primary evaluation document, which consists of three sections, one of which is written by each of the student's teachers. This prose describes not so much what the student *can* do, as what he/she *does* when there is obviously a need or an opportunity to communicate. It is designed to address the fact that there are students who have considerable linguistic ability, but for some reason do not communicate well across cultures, as well as the fact that there are those with very limited ability who not only accomplish work tasks which are seemingly beyond their linguistic ability, but who make good impressions and lasting friendships as well.

Conclusion

Teachers need to understand the basic principle of the program, and use it as a guidepost in their teaching. What other people have done in the past serves as a model, but teachers are encouraged to decide for themselves how closely to follow what has been done. Their restriction is to stay within the relatively broad conceptual bounds of the curriculum, and direct students toward the long and short term goals of the program.

Students suffer an induced culture shock characterized by their adjustment to the English-only policy. Sometimes they are frustrated by the seeming lack of attention to grammar rules. The program is residential, and there can be problems with that aspect of the program as well. But in general, the program does what it sets out to do. That is, it produces students who are practical communicators. Students who complete the program are generally more proficient linguistically. But they have also grown accustomed to associating with foreigners on a daily basis. And, very importantly, they are also more able to overcome their linguistic limitations by persisting appropriately both in getting their meaning across and in understanding what others are saying to them.

The term "notional" in reference to the LIOJ program refers to a set of ideas and a system of teaching, in a program which emphasizes interaction. It allows teachers to make an art of teaching; art that is guided and disciplined, but at the same time expressive and experimental. The curriculum, truly "notional" to whatever degree, is the guide toward both the broad communicative goal, and the narrower, more incidental, linguistic and skill goals. It works pretty well.

Appendix A: Linguistic and Skill Assessment Draft Form

Student: ____________________ Term: ________ Class (ABCD): ________

NOTE: These areas of assessment pertain mostly to what the student is capable of doing. The written evaluation emphasizes how well the student actually applies his/her capability.

LINGUISTIC (Drafted by Micro Teacher and verified by others):

1.	Pronunciation	– n +
2.	Grammar	1 + 1.5 + 2 + 2.5 + 3 + 3.5 + 4 + 5
3.	General Vocabulary	1 + 1.5 + 2 + 2.5 + 3 + 3.5 + 4 + 5
4.	Fluency	1 + 1.5 + 2 + 2.5 + 3 + 3.5 + 4 + 5
5.	Listening Comprehension	1 + 1.5 + 2 + 2.5 + 3 + 3.5 + 4 + 5
LINGUISTIC AVERAGE:		1 + 1.5 + 2 + 2.5 + 3 + 3.5 + 4 + 5

BES (Do #s 1, 2, and 3, and choose two from 4-8 for a total of five; use #8 sparingly):

1.	Participating in Business Meetings	1 + 1.5 + 2 + 2.5 + 3 + 3.5 + 4 + 5
2.	Making Presentations	1 + 1.5 + 2 + 2.5 + 3 + 3.5 + 4 + 5
3.	Exchanging Business-Related Info	1 + 1.5 + 2 + 2.5 + 3 + 3.5 + 4 + 5
4.	Conducting Training	1 + 1.5 + 2 + 2.5 + 3 + 3.5 + 4 + 5
5.	Undergoing Training	1 + 1.5 + 2 + 2.5 + 3 + 3.5 + 4 + 5
6.	Being a Guest	1 + 1.5 + 2 + 2.5 + 3 + 3.5 + 4 + 5
7.	Dealing with Visitors	1 + 1.5 + 2 + 2.5 + 3 + 3.5 + 4 + 5
8.	Professional Vocabulary	1 + 1.5 + 2 + 2.5 + 3 + 3.5 + 4 + 5

MICRO:

1.	Conversation in One-to-One Situations	1 + 1.5 + 2 + 2.5 + 3 + 3.5 + 4 + 5
2.	Communicating on the Telephone	1 + 1.5 + 2 + 2.5 + 3 + 3.5 + 4 + 5
3.	Asking for Clar, Rep, ...	1 + 1.5 + 2 + 2.5 + 3 + 3.5 + 4 + 5

MACRO:

1.	Comp & Sum Uninterrupted Speech	1 + 1.5 + 2 + 2.5 + 3 + 3.5 + 4 + 5
2.	Impromptu Speaking	1 + 1.5 + 2 + 2.5 + 3 + 3.5 + 4 + 5
SKILL AVERAGE:		1 + 1.5 + 2 + 2.5 + 3 + 3.5 + 4 + 5

EVALUATION OF STUDENT'S PROGRESS:

Poor Fair Good Very Good Excellent

Teachers: ____________________

Appendix B: Written Evaluation

Application of Skills to Communication

Student: (Sample)

General Communicative Ability in One-to-One Situations (Micro):

Mr. Xxx is a good communicator one-to-one. He still makes some grammatical mistakes, but almost always communicates successfully despite them. Mr. Xxx actively seeks opportunities to engage others in conversation in English. He also asks consistently for repetition and clarification when he needs it, in addition to asking many questions simply out of curiosity. He maintains conversations well by asking for examples and details, and by contributing his own ideas. He is comfortable and confident around non-Japanese, managing to solve most communication problems by asking for help when he does not understand or has difficulty expressing himself. He is interested in other people and has a sense of humor. In one-to-one situations with non-Japanese, he will make a good impression and friendships as well.

General Communicative Ability in Group Situations (Macro):

Mr. Xxx performs well in group situations. He uses logic and visual cues as well as follow-up questions to enhance his comprehension of difficult speech. He is also comfortable and attentive as a member of an audience, cooperating and participating fully in group tasks, asking insightful questions in a timely and tactful fashion, and generally giving a good impression as an attentive team player. He has learned to express his thoughts systematically in English, making general statements, supporting them with examples, and introducing and concluding appropriately. Mr. Xxx still has definite linguistic limitations, but he is relaxed in a group, and is not unduly nervous even when addressing the group as a whole. He is interested in cultural differences, and adapted well to the simulated foreign culture at LIOJ.

General Communicative Ability in Business (BES):

Mr. Xxx is a good communicator in business situations. He expresses even complex business concepts quite clearly for his level, and can understand well enough to work in English, even on his own, provided some concessions are made for his limitations. He is obviously very knowledgeable in his work, and makes a good professional impression. He uses polite expressions consistently, and uses humor and appropriate personal questions to put others at ease. He also recognizes and adjusts to differences in formality in different situations. He uses persuasive language effectively in situations such as business meetings or contract negotiations. Although Mr. Xxx's linguistic skills are still somewhat limited, his application of those skills and his constructive attitude indicate that he will have few serious communication problems in international business situations.

Teachers: ____________ ____________ ____________

Micro Teacher Macro Teacher BES Teacher

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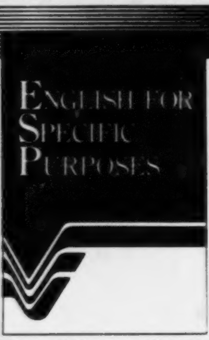

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Don't Sell Short the Exposition Pattern of Classical Rhetoric

William West

Thesis statement: The exposition pattern of classical rhetoric provides an effective base for simple, direct communication.

Purpose statement: As a retired, but still involved teacher of English and speech, I self-consciously want to exemplify the effective use of the classical rhetorical pattern of exposition for professional teachers among whom it is currently in disfavor. My purpose is to promote its use as a sound point of departure for expository communication.

Exordium (Introduction: establish rapport with the audience; arouse interest): Last year, at the age of 62, I left my professorship at the University of South Florida to train budding diplomats for the Japanese Ministry of Foreign Affairs (Gai Mu Sho) in its Tokyo Foreign Service Training Institute.

(*Have I established rapport? Are you interested?*)

State the main idea: Little did I realize that the old familiar 5-division expository composition–which comes straight from classical rhetoric–would be an invaluable tool in my teaching.

(*Do you know what I hope to illustrate?*)

Dr. William W. West has spent forty-two years as a high school and college teacher of English and trainer of English teachers, taking two years out as English editor for a Boston publisher. Upon retirement from the University of South Florida in August of 1987, he became a full-time English instructor at the Gai Mu Sho Ken Shu Jo (Japanese Ministry of Foreign Service Training Institute). He is now a professor at the new Meikai University in Urayasu, Tokyo.

Divisio (indicate the main divisions of your presentation): Perhaps the backgrounds of my students generated a special need to learn this pattern, and perhaps foreseeable applications in their careers established a special readiness, but I soon developed a new commitment to our old standby when I saw its effectiveness in a variety of situations.

(*Do you have an overview of the organization of this paper?*)

Body (take up each point from the Divisio in the exact order presented):

Backgrounds of the students

Our students at the Gai Mu Sho Ken Shu Jo were of several types. Entering diplomats were top graduates of Japan's best schools, usually from aristocratic families and with career commitments. All would receive one year of combined academic and on-the-job Ministry training before going two years for a Master's Degree at government expense to any of the world's best universities. Midcareer diplomats from non-English-speaking assignments were being retreaded prior to a fresh overseas assignment in an English-speaking nation. Officials from Ministries other than the Ministry of Foreign Affairs were preparing for overseas assignments as specialist consular attachés or as representatives to international organizations. And some special classes were preparing for special duties: security guards were preparing to handle new waves of terrorist problems; former Japan National Railways employees whose "lifetime employment" had evaporated when the railroads were privatized were being absorbed into the Ministry wherever they could be used; and charming and beautiful wives of all ages were preparing to become effective and gracious hostesses and overseas helpmates for their diplomat husbands.

None, however, had ever prepared a straight, simple, linear presentation of an idea. In Japan, one does not "lay out" or expose (exposition) a proposition for discussion and consideration. The usual pattern is to approach an audience fawningly and apologetically, discuss casually a number of insignificant and unrelated items, and then almost as an after-thought mention the primary subject. But even after *almost* identifying it (it still lies buried in a heap of miscellany), one doesn't treat it directly. Instead, the communicator sneaks up on it, surrounds it with a plethora of seemingly unrelated ideas which may, or may not, bleed into it. Finally, one sneaks apologetically away from the tortured subject as if to guarantee confusion in identifying it and the mystery concerning the thesis or proposition intended.

And none of the students had ever been in an argument or debate. In Japan, one does not argue or debate. One bows, apologizes, and keeps on bowing, promoting at all costs group identity and solidarity and avoiding disagreement.

Of course, Orientalists emphasize that Japanese rhetorical strategy is not all bad! Indeed, as opposed to the Western linear approach, they see it almost as though one were to write an idea on tissue paper and then very carefully make ink dots on the tissue around the idea. As the blots expand, merge, and interact, they completely cover every aspect of the subject and each other in much more depth and intensity than the simple Western line. Moreover, though slow, for the trained participant, the process is pleasureable–like the exploration of fine poetry for ambience, allusion, metaphor, and color–and before action everyone understands completely.

Similarly, Orientalists emphasize that participation in argument or debate is not only unnecessary, but destructive to group solidarity. Indeed, any groups in which Japanese might argue and debate are so close and the experiences of the members so similar that one need only toss in a subject, wait, and as a result of a mystical, quiet, nonverbal process called "haragei" (belly talk), a consensus emerges so that the total group, without discussion, becomes committed to one point of view and one course of action. It is somewhat like the process of seeking Quaker consensus–but without talking.

Foreseeable applications in students' careers

But the oriental rhetoric so effective in their own country and with their own people may not be either effective, useful, or comprehensible in other cultures. Time-conscious Americans may refuse to listen to a presentation in which the subject is not identified; pragmatic Russians may refuse to expend the psychic and creative energy to perceive the metaphors and assemble the allusions; and even the poetic French or Italian aesthetes may not be aware of the necessity of calling on metaphoric and poetic skills to comprehend the intricately woven message.

In short, despite the unquestioned values of Japanese rhetoric in Japanese society, as Japan prepares diplomats to handle its role as a world leader, it must prepare them to state simply and support directly, clearly, and effectively the Japanese stance. As Japan negotiates new trade relations, gives billions to developing nations, trades industrial and scientific technology, assimilates more Western culture and becomes a leader in humanistic and ecological sensitivity, its speakers and writers need to communicate more effectively than ever before. There is no better place to begin than with the simple classical rhetorical pattern of exposition–the 5-division composition.

Effectiveness in a variety of situations

The 5-division composition is, or course, short, easy to exemplify, and easy to teach. Moreover, it is easy to apply. Even though I was teaching English as a second language, my exceptionally bright students–who, of course, already had a good deal of communication experience (though with a different kind of rhetoric) and who were motivated by their foreseeable needs–applied it in many situations. They wrote letters for publication in the English edition of the Japan Times, they prepared mock addresses to a model United Nations, they wrote real essay examinations following imaginary RFP's (Requests for Proposals), and they prepared and delivered dozens of very brief expository and persuasive speeches.

Peroratio (Conclusion: restate your main idea, and if you can make them effective, restate the main points of your division): Although I have been but one year at the Gai Mu Sho Ken Shu Jo, I have already heard from, among others, Naoki Hoshi that he enjoys being a member of the Classic Car Club in San Francisco, from Shimizu Yasuhiro that his first assignment in Washington was touring with two Congressmen, and from Takahashi Toru that he is working on agricultural problems in Ottawa. These and other gifted Japanese diplomats are now using advanced versions of the classic 5-division composition effectively, because they are really special students, because they have foreseeable significant communications needs, and because this simple pattern is effective in many different applications.

(*Do you now have a quick recap of the main points of the article?*)

End interestingly, if possible re-stating your thesis: If the 5-division composition can be used advantageously in the training of Japanese diplomats, the chances are that it can be used effectively by communication teachers in many other settings. I've developed great new respect for this simple tool–though it hasn't the beauty and depth and intricacy of poetry and fiction (or oriental rhetoric)–none of which it should pretend to possess or aspire to.

I am waiting eagerly for the time a few years from now when I shall encounter someone who will look aghast and exclaim in amazement, "You're not still teaching the 5-division theme!" At that time, if my students are as good as I think they are, I shall not apologize: I shall state simply and directly, "But, of course. The Prime Minister and several Ambassadors have written me about how valuable they find the 5-division form."

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Teaching Writing and Zen: A Curious Parallel

Phillip Jay Lewitt

The teaching of writing has too many experts; what we need are some old beginners. My first Zen Master, Japanese-American Shunryu Suzuki of San Francisco Zen Center, wrote: "In the beginner's mind there are many possibilities; in the expert's mind there are few....When we have no thought of achievement...we are true beginners. Then we can really learn something....So the most difficult thing is always to keep your beginner's mind. There is no need to have a deep understanding of Zen....You should not say, 'I know what Zen is,' or 'I have attained enlightenment.' This is also the real secret of the arts: always be a beginner. Be very careful about this point" (1970:22).

I was talking about winning at tennis with a Japanese colleague out on the courts one day, but we could have been talking about writing. "Results aren't very important," I said, "because as soon as you talk about results, you're living in the past, and life is lived in the present. It's the game itself, the process, that's so vital and interesting, not the results."

"That's very American, isn't it!" he said.

"Maybe it is," I told him, "but I got the idea from practicing Japanese Zen Buddhism for twenty years."

A traditional Buddhist story about an old beginner, and about rules and results, might illuminate the matter: long ago in Sri Lanka, where the rules for male monks were very strict and a woman could never be touched, an old monk and a young monk

---

Philip Jay Lewitt has studied Zen at Tassajara Monastery in California; he also holds an M.A. in Creative Writing (S.F. State) and a Ph.D. in English & American Literature (Indiana U. of Pa.). Since 1977 Dr. Lewitt has been Foreign Professor of English at Tottori National University in Japan, where he directs programs for future teachers in Writing, Spoken English, and American Literature.

were walking along a forest path, when they came to a river. At the bank stood a gorgeous young woman in her best sari, obviously unwilling to get it wet in the muddy stream. Without any hesitation, the old monk picked her up, held her closely in his arms, and carried her across the river. On the other side he put her down gently, she thanked him and headed off in one direction, while the two monks set off in another. After two hours of walking in silence, the young monk, who had been stewing and steaming all this time, couldn't stand it any more.

"I...I...I don't understand how you could break our rules!" he spluttered. "You not only touched her, your whole bodies were rubbing against each other!"

"Ah, well," the old monk said, "I put her down two hours ago; you're still carrying her."

In the Western world, rules of logic and dialectic demand that everything be divided into This and That, but in the Eastern world often This *is* That (in Sanskrit *tat tvam asi*). The division of everything into at least two parts by the ancient Greeks, while creating a background for the brilliance of Western science, has also led to a dualism which lends itself to a false view of things as being static, unchanging, as though we can hold two opposing parts up for scrutiny and they will stay there, fixed like butterflies on pins.

In Zen, duality is an illusion, maybe temporarily useful for talking about something (in terms of teaching, the Sanskrit *upaya*, or skillful means; or the Coyote Trickster engaged in what poet Gary Snyder calls the Real Work). We must not forget, however, that the illusion rides lightly on the surface of reality. Underneath is unity and a oneness which is never static, but always in motion, and always was and will be in motion. This is an unending process which we are all part of and which is always "now."

Since the Zen teacher knows from experience that there is only process, that stasis is an illusion, s/he must use process as a teaching method.

Zen teaching method uses four main processes (plus whatever else is around that will do the trick): meditation, physical work, personal interviews, and group lectures, in that order of importance. Zen meditation is called *zazen* (sitting zen) and is the heart of Zen training because it is experiential, something you do, and must do alone even if fifty other students are sitting in the meditation hall with you.

Next is physical work, lots of it, but with no hurry, nothing to finish, for the work goes on forever. You seek the rhythm of the work; you work the work and the work works you. You are "keeping in shape."

In the personal interview, or conference with the teacher, the student gets a regular and continuing chance to talk on a one-to-one basis with the teacher, a person who has been through the same process with his or her own teacher, and knows most of the frustrations and pitfalls, as well as the occasional joys of the process. The teacher does much more listening than talking, knowing that students must find out for themselves, that although *showing* a student once in a while may help, just *telling* a student is generally a waste of breath. The conference is quite brief, just a few minutes, though when necessary it can go on longer.

Last in importance is the lecture to the group: the teacher may seem to speak rather randomly, to cast around for a theme or a mood, maybe tell funny stories from his or her own student days, or traditional Zen stories that sound like paradoxes and often don't make much sense to the intellect:

Student: "Is there a Hell?"
Teacher: "Umn, yes there is and no there isn't."
Student: "What do you mean, yes there is and no there isn't?"
Teacher: "Well, if you're in Hell, there is, and if you're not in Hell, there isn't."

If the student is ripe, the story makes sense, either at that time, or later in a delayed reaction. On occasion, the teacher may even do a bit of gentle exhortation, if the students seem to have been especially sleepy of late; more often, the teacher just says, "Let's not talk, let's sit," and the lecture turns into yet another meditation session.

Of course, no matter what the teacher says or does to the contrary, the young Zen student still thinks that there is something to attain, some Big Goal, some Product.

In the middle 1960's, writing teachers began to realize that the traditional way of looking at writing as a product, and of teaching writing with the product as a clear goal, was a faulty view resulting in a faulty procedure which more often than not produced poor writing. What is poor writing, anyway? Is this piece, which I found printed on a Japanese plastic beach bag, an example?

> "Honey....Smile Punch! Beer with Healthy. Asahi Draft Beer, the best thirst-quencher for you and anyone else; brown liquids with tiny white bubbles penetration into throat and stomach, gorgeous confidence. Ingredients; malt, hop, rice, corn, starch.... simultaneously about 4 and 0.5 percent alcohol. NO dispose of heat. Brewed and nice ALL-Aluminum canned by Asahi Breweries Limited Japan (but worldwide scale company ....., You Know It!)
>
> How Dare TARA CLUB with all sexy times available to latest image conquest.
>
> Message from the bottom. First Time, drink up all six cans full of Asahi Draft Beer. Next to Last. This bag will be useful for letting in bikini and other swimming suits. Plus Think for yourself in any case!

I think it is pretty good writing: it communicates, it's funny, has rhythm and imagery. Give a student with a mind that creative and loose to many of today's writing teachers and they will be delighted. There has been a significant and growing shift toward the view that writing, like living, is a process without absolute and logical goals, and that to learn to write, students and teachers alike must write regularly and often. They should work with the whole spectrum of the writing experience from thinking to note-taking to writing to rewriting to revising to editing and back around again in a continuing cycle. Moreover, focusing only on the product, the paper to be handed in for correcting and grading, results in a concentration on error that unintentionally reinforces error as well as loathing and failure-angst.

It seems to me that the process of teaching writing is becoming much like the process of teaching Zen, a marvelous cross-fertilization of Eastern and Western ways. Donald M. Murray writes: "The process of making meaning with written language cannot be understood from looking backward from a finished page. Process can not be inferred from product any more than a pig can be inferred from a sausage" (1980:3). Saying the obvious, and saying it well and concretely, is enormously difficult and enormously helpful. It is a display of the skill of a true teacher.

Even more important is the skill of knowing what not to say and when not to say it. "Each year I teach less and less," Murray confesses, "and my students seem to learn more. I guess what I've learned to do is to stay out of their way and not to interfere with their learning" (1979:14).

Correction is only for those who are ready; like a Zen story, if you're ready, you understand it, and if you're not, you don't. But advanced students are usually self-correcting, anyway, and a teacher probably should not waste much energy on a student who does not care. My friend, Zen Master Kobun Chino in California, once said to me: "When Buddha meets Not-Buddha, he does not speak."

Writing is an ethical act, as Zen teachers believe that meditation is an ethical act. Neither the practice of Zen nor the practice of writing should be done only for the self, for selfish purposes. In one sense it is done for the self, but in another sense it is done for everyone, for all beings; it may be practice alone and in quietude, but its implications eddy out through the world like the rings from a rock tossed into a still pool.

In a loose way I would compare meditation and physical work, the most important and intertwined processes in Zen, with thinking (prewriting) and writing. At first comes that outwardly quiet time when connections begin to occur among bits and pieces of previously collected information, when the voice inside the head starts to speak, halt, rearrange, and speak again. Writers do, and should, spend a lot of time just "gazing at the wall" like Zen monks.

Writing itself is, in fact, hard physical work, whether with pencil or keyboard: hands cramp, neck-cords tighten, shoulders ache, eyes unfocus. The writer sweats, paces, chills, moves back in for more, looking for a rhythm to emerge.

The writing conference is like the Zen conference, one-on-one, teacher listening carefully to student so that the student can learn to listen carefully to the self. Students need to prepare themselves for the conference, because the teacher of Zen or of writing will ask questions rather than make detailed comments or criticisms, turning back questions toward the student like the farmer from Maine who, when told that the weather's fine, replies, "Is it?"

The group lecture, least important and rarely indulged in both by the Zen teacher and the process-writing teacher, is reserved for those occasions when the teacher really feels some need to talk to everyone as a group, or it becomes evident to the teacher that the group truly needs him or her to address some problem held in common.

Buddhism is called "the middle way," because Siddhartha (the historical Buddha) found that neither starving himself nor pampering himself helped him to come to understand the nature of reality, so he learned to work and meditate calmly, eating when hungry, drinking when thirsty, sleeping when tired. "When you eat, just eat," says the Zen teacher, and the writing teacher can say, "When you write, just write."

When I was a graduate student many years ago, I was fired from a job correcting business letters for a business-English teacher, because I couldn't bring myself to fail those students who wrote simple, clear letters but strayed from the rigid formulae this teacher insisted upon.

Years later, a friend working for the president of a giant cosmetics company in Osaka told me that the boss could not understand why, in translating his business letters from Japanese to English, two pages became half a page. What had happened to the rest of his letter? My friend tried to explain, unsuccessfully, that the polite diffuseness of the Japanese business letter style and the relatively brutal terseness of the American business letter style created big problems in translation and editing.

So there is a middle way in writing, too. In student essays, a middle ground exists between a sloppy formlessness and the rigidity of the error-free, five-paragraph piece of dullness that makes students ardently desire to trash teachers and read comics.

What is the *Dharma*, the Truth, the Way, when it comes to writing? Poet W. S. Merwin says, "Practice, practice, put your hope in that."

Teaching practice is just advanced-learner practice, but the teacher must exercise a fine and unobtrusive and non-interfering yet clear control over the classroom and its activities, setting an atmosphere of *self*-control, for writing, like Zen, aims at total freedom, but its practice is disciplined. To be effective, that discipline has to be internal, a balancing of self between dopey laziness and paralyzing stress. The Zen teacher never whacks you with the long stick unless you ask for it; you get to find your own way.

As Zen teachers always meditate with their students, so writing teachers should write in class along with students: you cannot teach what you cannot or will not do. Busy writing, the teacher won't be looking over people's shoulders, making them nervous; the students will plainly see that you practice what you preach.

One way of expressing Buddhism's Triple Treasure is as body, mind, and speech (or writing), because at the crosshair of speaking/

writing with body and mind, a physical act and a mental act simultaneously combine and become one, producing a communication which is both emotional and intellectual, both immediate and storable.

"Your" students have not taken your writing course to accomplish your set of goals, but to learn to write, and they need plenty of space to grow in order to do this: the teacher provides a big space and a broad way. Growing is a process, not a product. Grammatical structure, figurative language, accurate punctuation, the bones, the flesh, the jewels of writing, given enough space and time for practice, appear real and dazzling.

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Considerations for Japanese EFL Learners Prior to Intensive ESL Programs in the United States: Three Case Studies in Awareness and Motivation

Richard Stone

The fact that English is a dominant world language today is important in understanding how linguistic attitudes are shaped. Edwards (1982) holds that a language of great scope, dominance, and prestige will evoke attitudes in learners different from those related to "smaller" languages. However, the language attitude or aptitude of incoming ESL students are generally not assessed in their program's battery of tests; instead, students almost invariably take only proficiency or placement tests. Ryan et al. (1982:16) state:

> Aptitude, as assessed by standardized tests, is viewed to be much more important in formal learning situations than in informal ones. Attitudes have been shown to relate to perseverance (i.e., the measure of motivational intensity) in language study as well as to classroom behavior.

In Krashen's acquisition/learning dichotomy (1982), aptitude can be more closely associated with second language learning and attitude with acquisition. This paper takes the position that attitude and motivation play important roles in influencing both productive and counter-productive language learning behaviors, and therefore, L2 development.

Few adjustments need to be made in the lifestyle, learning style, or personal expectations of Japanese students who wish to study EFL in their own locales, since input is available from a multitude

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of public and private sources. In addition to the variety of English exposure found in radio, TV, movies, newspapers, and books, settings for more structured learning range from sophisticated, intensive English-only institutes to private tutoring by native speakers to traditional English classes within the Japanese educational system which employ Japanese nationals as teachers.

However, an increasing number of Japanese students are seeking language learning experiences other than those found in their own country and are enrolling in intensive English language programs in the United States to further their individual aspirations. Some of these students intend to matriculate at an American college or graduate school; others are merely taking advantage of the relative strength of the yen, and therefore, the chance to go abroad.

Unfortunately, many Japanese go into their cross-cultural language learning experience naively thinking that their ESL program will be predictable, if not indentical, to their EFL experiences in Japan. Some expect the program to meet their personal, preconceived agendas, which is part of the educational and cultural baggage that they may bring with them. Others hope to improve their English proficiency and learn more about U.S. culture but fail to recognize the necessity of making adjustments themselves for social and educational norms that differ between Japan and America.

Because they often employ strategies to preserve those aspects of culture and learning that they are already accustomed to (Schumann 1976), such learners exemplify what Gardner and Lambert (1972) term "instrumental motivation." The result is often less satisfying personal and language learning experiences, especially if a program employs a seemingly informal, communicative curriculum, or emphasizes extra-class sources for input in second language acquisition and learning.

Hildebrandt and Giles (1980) suggest that the overwhelming attitudinal orientation of Japanese society toward learning English is instrumental, despite the strong desire that exists in many to be able to speak English with foreigners. They cite the example of students who demand grammar-translation lectures from professors—even native English speakers—in order to do better on university entrance exams, in preference to communicatively-based classes. This is supported by Honna (1979), who says regarding social identity theory, that while a certain amount of English fluency receives prestige and social reward in Japan, those who speak English and adopt cultural mannerisms too natively are viewed negatively by their society.

Yet there are also those Japanese whose motivation is more "integrative" (Gardner and Lambert); that is, they "want to learn more about the American way of life," a most predictable formulation penned by Japanese students in their initial correspondence with a U.S. language program. By employing acculturation and assimilation strategies (Schumann 1976), these individuals make more concerted efforts to fit in culturally and modify their previous educational experiences.

The success of such learners in American classrooms is enhanced by their greater flexibility in important social, psychological, affective, and cognitive factors, given the same type of communicative program alluded to above. Since little or no growth in attitude can be associated with the degree of language program success, it is important for students to develop productive attitudes prior to starting their studies. The most reliable indicator of second language success is the student's willingness to extend the learning setting beyond the classroom to interaction outside of class (DiPietro 1987).

Case Study Profiles

The following section presents anonymous case study profiles of three Japanese students who studied ESL in an intensive English program in the eastern U.S. Each profile reflects one of three categories: 1) Students who expected their ESL program to mirror their previous EFL experience, and thus, had an unrealistic set of expectations, 2) Students whose dominant motivation was instrumental in nature, and as a result, made few personal changes, and 3) Those whose source of motivation was more integrative, and in seeking fluency, assimilated fully into their new surroundings. The information presented in each profile reflects the primary orientation of that student; however, all students demonstrated a multiplicity of attitudes and behaviors.

Profile One–Expectations in ESL vs. EFL Programs

Y.N. was a college graduate who transferred from another ESL program which he felt wasn't meeting his needs. Y.N. came to the U.S. primarily with high integrative motivation, in order to study for the TOEFL and GMAT tests and to prepare himself for graduate studies in business through English study and exposure to the American style of education. He arrived with a strong sense of his own agenda—the "when, where, why, what, and how" of language and culture learning already pre-determined.

Unfortunately for Y.N., this agenda was based, in part, on expectations manufactured from vague and incomplete discussions with his EFL teachers and his own lack of knowledge about the many differences he would be exposed to in an ESL system, rather than on a personal commitment to be flexible and appreciate the merit in all facets of his program. He clung tenaciously to the teaching/learning style which he had grown accustomed to within the Japanese educational system that was instrumental in shaping his expectations about his ESL program: memorization, correctness, structure, and testing.

At a point early in the semester, Y.N. decided to withdraw from his writing class when he discovered that his teacher was not starting the class with those aspects of writing that he most wanted to work on. Since he was unable to predict the outcome of her method of instruction, which was a cognitive process approach in which student-teacher conferences were central and surface errors were not rigorously corrected (Flower and Hayes 1981; Carnicelli 1980), Y.N. lost confidence in her teaching and in his writing. He was unaware of the concept of taking personal responsibility for his writing, whereby the learner generates ideas, explores alternatives, gets teacher and peer advice, re-thinks, revises—all recursively—and then edits (Emig 1971; Reigstad and McAndrew 1984).

In his composition classes in Japan, his teachers exercised control over his writing, so he learned to write to please them, fulfilling the explicit requirements of their assignments (Smith 1981). Since a certain distance exists between students and teachers in Japan in their role as master and examiner (Condon 1984), Y.N. could not bring himself to discuss or negotiate with his American teacher the dissonance between his personal expectations and experiences in Japan and the instructional goals and style that she employed. In his impatience to drop the course, Y.N. lost his primary opportunity to improve in academic writing, an area which he had originally identified as being essential to his long-range goal of earning a graduate degree at an American university.

Profile Two—Instrumental Motivation

I.T. was a graduate student attending the summer ESL program immediately preceding his year of study as a special undergraduate Business Administration student. He chose his ESL program based solely on proximity and low cost and verbalized the goal of getting all the factual knowledge possible in a year about English and the U.S., in order to better his employment prospects. He viewed language learning, if not all learning, thinking, and study habits, to be absolutive in nature; that is, he saw learning as being the compilation of discrete facts, either black or white, right or wrong. These attitudes fostered noticeable intolerance toward language development and the style of his American teachers.

I.T. considered the teacher to be at the center of the learning experience and the source of unerring knowledge from whom he sought single, correct answers; for example, I.T. believed that all textbook exercises in his reading class should be completed individually and corrected on the basis of absolute answers, rather than apportioned out to individuals or small problem-solving groups where answers could be negotiated on the basis of reader-writer interactions (Thomas 1968; Smith 1982).

He held the view that language learning consisted of rote memorizing of grammar, spelling, and pronunciation rules, and accumulating vocabulary and facts. He resisted his teachers' advice to relax, tolerate ambiguity, modify his persectives, and work in cooperation with others, believing that it would diminish his ability to apply all his energy toward meeting his personal goals within the time frame available to him. Thus, I.T. exemplified the classic instrumentally motivated student in many ways (Gardner and Lambert), interested primarily in what English language training and university courses could do for his personal and professional goals. He wanted his ESL program to be a well-oiled piece of machinery, an automated assembly line that would transform him into a fluent speaker and scholar.

I.T. contributed to his own limited language learning success by making little effort to learn important non-verbal communication or social acculturation behaviors; for example, he spoke self-aggrandizingly about his university experiences in Japan. In light of the egalitarian nature of the American classroom setting he was in, people perceived him to be conceited and withdrew from him, when in fact, he may have desired just the opposite effect, since he occasionally made remarks that indicated that he had unfulfilled social expectations. Consequently, he felt that Americans weren't friendly, although he dismissed this thought summarily, since establishing friendships wasn't an expressed, motivational priority for him.

His mal-adaptive attitudes and behaviors set the stage for the critical evaluation he gave during his exit interview regarding certain aspects of the program. I.T. believed that everything that he derived from his program could just as easily have been accessed back in Japan: textbooks, tapes, native speakers, etc. While his assertion was true from an unenlightened, critical perspective, it is actually more of a comment on his own performance because he failed to recognize that interaction with teachers, classmates, roommates, and other Americans, both on and off campus, is crucial to language development and cultural understanding.

The beliefs that I.T. held were equally inconsistent with important underlying assumptions about communicative needs, whether informal or academic, that communication is proposition based, conventional, appropriate, interactional, and structured (Richards 1981). As his program was based on these assumptions, his instrumental orientation betrayed the opportunity he otherwise had for substantial growth in the second language and culture.

Profile Three—Integrative Motivation

N.D. was a high school English teacher who attended a short, summer ESL program following a cross-country tour of the U.S. She came with the specific intention of sharpening her aural/oral abilities and long-range goal of pursuing a graduate degree in English education at a later date. Although N.D. brought specific language learning goals with her, as did other students, she pursued them with an integrated motivation bent on maximum assimilation into her new environment.

N.D. worked hard to achieve her specific language goals. Her style of learning was characterized by an ability to tolerate uncertainty and ambiguity in the input she received from textbooks and teachers. She saw partial answers as challenges to learning and welcomed discussions, group work, and cooperative outside assignments. She often asked questions in class, scheduled office conferences with teachers, talked openly about her language learning struggles and successes, and came to the language lab for extra work in pronunciation and listening.

N.D. also pursued self-learning strategies to use outside of class: she focused on being an active listener, which helped reduce her anxiety in new surroundings and made input easier to process; she analyzed her oral performances in conversations to discern what she might do differently the next time; and she kept a notebook about what she learned–vocabulary, questions, irregularities and surprises, and new plans that she wanted to use in future conversations.

At the same time, she was able to perform satisfactorily in more structured kinds of language learning activities. Her classmates felt comfortable with her confident and relaxed manner and she proved to be a very good model for them. All this suggested that N.D. had a high level of self-esteem and accepted personal responsibility for her own learning rather than sitting back and waiting for it to be brought to her.

By using a good portion of her free time away from structured language study to seek out friendships with Americans, N.D. did not limit herself to making friends only among fellow ESL students. She was successful in turning single acquaintances into the start of multiple friendships and genuinely enjoyed meeting new people in her residence as well as public places off campus.

N.D.'s evaluation of the program was a positive one, although it might be said that she contributed much to her own learning and goal realization, above and beyond the in-class instruction and structured cultural exposure that the program provided. As a highly motivated and mature student with useful insights from her background as a language teacher, she pursued her short-range goals diligently, bringing her closer to attaining her long-range goal.

Discussion

How much students learn in their ESL programs and how satisfied they are with what they learn is determined by a number of factors. Many of these factors are not within the scope of this paper, and only a handful of them are purely instructional in nature: goals, teacher, method, text, time, intensity, and evaluation (Schumann 1978). Diversity in the perspectives that ESL programs have regarding instruction and the actual operational differences between them (i.e., methodologies, staff experience, location, operating budget, etc.) are so vast, that the discussion which follows limits itself to the student, since the more extensive variables that shape language acquisition and learning are those that the individual student brings to a program.

In the above profiles, all students made measurable progress in their English language abilities, but consistent with Gardner and Lambert's findings, those who showed more flexibility, accepted more personal responsibility, modified their expectations more and followed through on their socio-linguistic inclinations and opportunities, also showed more progress in language and culture learning. As DiPietro (1987) concludes from data relating to good language learners, those who fail in traditional language learning programs blame themselves, whereas those who fail in innovative programs fault poor teaching or the program itself, as did Profile One and Two students.

Christine Meloni's study of the needs of East Asian students in the U.S. (1985) records a number of interesting points for prospective students to consider. The Japanese, as they assessed themselves, had difficulty participating in classroom-size discussions, possessed limited vocabularies, were more proficient in reading than in the other three language skills, were inhibited by their shyness and the informality of Americans, and spent most of their free time with other Japanese watching television, going shopping or to the movies, or studying at home alone. Homesickness and depression were seldom listed as problems by the Japanese, except when related to English communication difficulties in class and otherwise.

Meloni reported, in reference to the American style of education, that the Japanese felt that American students attended class more regularly and were more active while there, and according to Japanese standards, demonstrated less outward respect for their teachers. They also thought that teachers taught more informally, were more friendly and easier to talk to, gave more frequent quizzes, tests, and homework, and taught smaller size classes. But the Japanese students also wanted their American teachers to do more to help them feel sufficiently relaxed, encourage them to talk, or insure their understanding of key points. Additionally, they were uncomfortable with the fact that teachers may occasionally criticize a student openly in class.

Discrepencies also exist between certain unrealistic expectations or fantasies and the realities of being in an ESL program in a new culture. These can be categorized as individual teaching and learning styles in Japan versus America (where responsibility for learning lies–i.e., with the curriculum, teacher, or student); tensions inherent in social, cognitive, and affective domains (e.g., ethnocentrism, self-esteem, introversion/extroversion, tolerance of ambiguity, etc.); knowing how to make acquaintances and form friendships; and dealing with the hazards of culture shock in matters of daily life (Rubin and Thompson 1982).

Students in our program also reported being uncertain about their language progress during the course of their study, even though data was gathered from the instructors, synthesized, and then discussed with the students at three week intervals. While most were pleased with the results of their exit test scores, some expressed vague disappointment in their programs based on their prior learning experiences and expectations. The more successful students became more responsible for their own learning, depending less on their rote memory skills or the teacher's ability to fill empty vessels, as it were, and more on their own creative initiative in class and outside.

Our successful Japanese students brought more realistic sets of expectations with them and were at least aware that there would be educational and cultural differences before coming to the U.S. Similarly, they came to realize that some of the expectations which they entertained prior to arriving were unproductive and based only on limited exposure to language use, American culture, or the ESL program that they selected. Although all students held personal goals in studying ESL, those who were more successful at realizing their goals blended their instrumental motivation with a high degree of integrative motivation.

Such learners had the characteristics of being more mature, relaxed, socially active with non-Japanese, and willing to take personal risks. At the same time, they were less critical of what was new and different to them. Having adjusted to their new environment and working hard to take full advantage of the opportunities offered by their programs both in and out of class, they have reported a continuing appreciation for their experiences after returning home and a desire to pursue the next step in their long-range goals.

Summary

This paper takes the position that ESL students with specific, realistic goals set in a framework of flexibility regarding the differences in education that exist between countries (i.e., EFL in Japan versus ESL in America) and with the desire to assimilate to a high degree into their new environment (i.e., integrative versus instrumental motivation) can expect greater success in the language and culture of another country. Case study profiles of Japanese ESL students who demonstrated three commonly held orientations have been presented to substantiate this position. By considering them in the context of the article, EFL teachers and their Japanese students can become more aware of potential strengths and weaknesses in attitudes, expectations, and behaviors, and make more effective preparations.

While more informed decisions on the part of the students themselves promote more successful experiences abroad, it is equally important to stimulate awareness and response within the EFL community in Japan to the significant role it can and must play in more fully preparing Japanese students. It is not enough to only offer courses and curricula in English or about American culture; it must also accept a degree of responsibility concerning the preparation of learners for actual language use and cultural assimilation in the L2 country. Too large a sector of the increasing number of Japanese who come to American to study demonstrate counterproductive expectations, attitudes, and behaviors regarding the second language and culture, which inhibit learning and result in less than fruitful cross-cultural experiences.

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Bright Idea

Turning "English Conversation" into Communication

Mary E. Whitsell

Internationalization and the important role English plays as a *lingua franca* have become popular issues in today's Japan. Many students are studying English for the commendable reason that they want to communicate with people from all over the world. The English language can be an indispensable tool toward this goal, but there is a need to distinguish between simply "making conversation" in English and effectively communicating ideas and exchanging information.

Japanese students come to the classroom with a full set of stereotypes regarding foreign lifestyles, preferences, and handicaps. Many of these are simply part of the natural "foreigner folklore" which has been collected over several decades, perhaps even dating back to as long ago as the Meiji period, in some cases. The "foreigners can't..." myths that are so deeply ingrained in the Japanese mind are often actually taught in the schools or passed along from generation to generation. Many are based on former truth; in occupied Japan, for instance, American servicemen did balk at the idea of eating things like raw fish and seaweed, but in today's rapidly changing world these still firmly held stereotypes about what foreign people can and can't do have become outdated.

In addition to the troublesome "Can you...?" questions students sometimes ask, there are other types of questions which, especially when asked at a first meeting, may be quite inappropriate. Whereas "Can you...?" questions often arise from preconceptions about foreigners, these other potentially socially incorrect questions have their origins in direct translation from Japanese to

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English or are questions which, while not especially socially offensive in Japanese, can be so in English. An example of the latter is the notorious "How old are you?", (also a favorite question because it is so easy to ask!), while a typical direct translation question would be something like, "When are you going home?" (Itsu kaerimasu ka?). A question like, "How many boyfriends do you have?" also sounds a bit less intrusive in Japanese, due to the fact that in Japanese a "boyfriend" is not necessarily a lover.

English language teachers owe it to their students to point out the inappropriateness of these questions and correct the misinformation that prompts them. Teachers are often their students' only English conversational partners and, moreover, are likely to be the only people who will give the students any useful feedback concerning appropriateness of speech in English. What it finally boils down to is simply this: if teachers don't tell students these things are potentially offensive and not conducive to making English-speaking friends, who will?

Enlightening our students as to the negative feelings these questions can create, helps them become "internationalized" by providing them with honest feedback and steering them away from potentially offensive subject areas. Obviously, no serious student of English wants to offend or embarrass the people with whom s/he is trying to communicate. The more sensitive a student is about the feelings and experiences of foreign residents and tourists in Japan, the more long-term conversational partners s/he should make and keep. This lesson brings out many of the commonly held stereotypes about foreigners that often lead students to ask inappropriate questions. The students are first presented with a series of questions and told to mark the questions as "T" (appropriate for a tourist in Japan), "R" (appropriate for a foreign resident of Japan), "B" (appropriate for both tourists and residents), or "D/A" ("don't ask" – inappropriate question). Students work individually on the questions at first, then discuss their answers with a partner or partners. As students rarely have the same opinions about these questions, the interchanges are usually quite lively and time-consuming. When the students have thoroughly discussed their various opinions and given their arguments for them, the class discusses each question as a group. Students who have spent time abroad and have accordingly been exposed to offensive myths and stereotypes about Japanese people can contribute quite a bit to this lesson by sharing their overseas experiences. Those students who have never been out of Japan are often amazed and even shocked to hear what misconceptions people from other countries have about them: Japanese, Chinese and Korean people are all the same, Japanese mothers and fathers are not affectionate toward their children, Japanese people live in paper houses and do not use knives or forks, etc. A discussion on commonly held beliefs and stereotypes, whether those held by Japanese people about other nationalities or vice versa, can be an eye-opening experience in many ways. Often a good follow-up to this lesson is to have those students who have lived abroad or spent some time travelling abroad write about their experiences, good and bad, and make short presentations on them in class.

The "D/A" questions may be considered inappropriate for a variety of reasons. Questions such as, "What are you doing here?", "What is your purpose in Japan?", and "When are you going home?" obviously carry other than their linguistic surface meanings and may stem from direct translation from Japanese. That these questions can be interpreted as being quite rude often comes as a surprise to many Japanese students of English. "Can you...?" questions are generally not offensive to tourists, for whom Japanese customs, food, and living conditions are usually new, while they are inappropriate for foreign people who live in Japan. Likewise, a question that involves fairly detailed information about Japan such as, "What do you think of the Japanese educational system?" would be more appropriate for a resident of Japan than for a tourist. Most students know that questions like, "How old are you?" and "How much money do you make?" are completely inappropriate for anyone, but as there is some controversy among Japanese people as to whether these questions are rude or not, it is a good idea to include them in such a list.

FOREIGN TOURIST OR FOREIGN RESIDENT?

Please read the following questions. If you think a question is appropriate for a foreign resident of Japan, mark it "R". If you think it is appropriate for only tourists in Japan, mark it "T". If you think you can ask both tourists and residents this question, mark it "B". When you think a question is entirely inappropriate for anyone, mark it "D/A" (Don't Ask!). When you have finished marking the questions, discuss your answers with your partner/s. If you don't agree with something they have written, be sure to tell them and explain why!

Can you use chopsticks?

What is your purpose in Japan?

How many boy/girlfriends do you have?

Where do you live?

Can you eat raw fish?

What do you think of the Japanese educational system?

How long have you been in Japan?

Are you going to visit Kyoto?

What do you think of Japanese trains?

What do you do here?

How do you like Japanese food?

How much money do you make?

Can you sleep on a futon?

Do you ever feel homesick?

What food from your country do you miss the most?

How old are you?

What are you doing here?

When are you going home?

What's your favorite Japanese city?

Where have you been so far in Japan?

Another difficulty many students have is the tendency to concentrate more on the conversation they are producing than what their partner is saying. This is a difficult problem for students because, of course, it takes years of practice before a language student becomes confident and relaxed enough to understand everything his or her partner is saying. Teachers can help even their beginning students prepare temselves for questions and responses they might hear, as well as refrain from producing the kind of one-sided dialogs that are common:

Japanese Person: Where are you from?
Foreigner: Uh – Brazil.
Japanese Person: What is your name?
Foreigner: Jorge.
Japanese Person: Why are you in Japan?
Foreigner: Eh?
Japanese Person: Why did you come to Japan?
Foreigner: .... I'm here on holiday ....

When a dialog such as the one above is actually written on the blackboard for students to see, it is easy for them to understand just how choppy, disjointed, and disconcerting it might sound to a foreigner.

Students can see how the conversational partner who is receiving all the questions has no idea of what the next question will possibly be. Rather than being involved in a real exchange, s/he is being "talked at" or "practiced on." By listening to the answer and responding accordingly, the student of English can completely alter the tone of the conversation from that of aggressive inquisitiveness to one of sincere interest. A good contrast is the following:

Japanese Person: Where are you from?
Foreigner: Brazil.
Japanese Person: Oh really? I don't know much about Brazil but it must be an interesting place! How long have you been here?
Foreigner: Only two weeks.
Japanese Person: Are you a tourist, then?
Foreigner: Yes I am. I'm going back next week.
Japanese Person: What places have you visited here?
(Etc.)

Although the above conversation is admittedly not a particularly thrilling or creative exchange, it is considerably easier to follow and less threatening than a volley of unrelated questions fired "interview fashion" at one's partner. Fairly predictable and commonly used phrases such as "I don't know much about __________, but it must be an interesting place" and "What places have you visited so far?" will hopefully help students elicit more information from their conversational partners than a simple "yes" or "no." Students also feel comfortable knowing that there are in English, as in Japanese, expressions commonly used in certain situations.

To help students "construct" interesting and connected conversations, there are a variety of exercises that can be used. To begin with, teachers can write a typical opening line on the board, "Where are you from?" and elicit the rest of the conversation from the students, encouraging them to relate their comments and questions to the previous utterance instead of coming up with completely unpredictable elements. This can be followed with an open conversation cloze where only the foreigner's part is written and the student must come up with his or her end:

You: Suteki na paati desu ne! (What a lovely party!)
Foreigner: I'm sorry – I don't speak Japanese!
You: Oh – I'm sorry! I thought you were Japanese. Where are you from?
Foreigner: Yes, I know. My parents were second generation Japanese – You say "nisei" in Japanese, I think.
You:
Foreigner: Only a month.
You:
Foreigner: Yes. I'm going back in a month.
You:
Foreigner: Oh, lots of places. My relatives have taken me to see Kumamoto, Nagasaki, and Beppu, and of course I've been to Kyoto and Nara.
You:
Foreigner: I LOVED it! The thing I liked the best was the deer! They were so cute; they ate bread from my hand!

This activity can be followed or preceded by a scrambling exercise, where students are given a conversation that has been cut into strips and asked to reconstruct it to make a connected, understandable conversation.

These sentences can be cut out, scrambled, then given to students to reconstruct into a conversation:

Where are you from?

Portugal.

Really? I've never been there, but it must be a beautiful place. I've seen a lot of travel posters...

Yes, you're right, it is. Japan is really beautiful too, though.

I'm glad you think so. By the way, how long have you been here?

Only a week.

Are you just here on a visit or do you plan to stay for a long time?

Oh, I'm just here as a tourist.

Where have you been so far, in Japan?

Only to Kyoto, Nikko, and Kamakura.

What did you think of Kyoto?

Oh, it was lovely – I especially enjoyed the Golden Temple!

Yes, that is pretty, isn't it.

Have you been there many times?

No, only once on a high school trip, but I remember the Golden Temple – we call it Kinkakuji in Japanese.

You should go again! If I lived here, I'd go to Kyoto every month.

Well, I wish I could, but unfortunately it's rather expensive. Shinkansen tickets cost a lot of money!

If the gapped dialog proves too difficult for students, the teacher can write out some appropriate responses and have the students fit them into the conversation. Any problems in the English itself can be ironed out, and easier gapped dialogs can be given to the students to complete until they feel more comfortable with the format.

Finally, when students have had enough time to practice, they can be given the task of constructing their own conversations from scratch, including both their own and the foreigner' sides of the dialog. This is a lot more difficult, and of course entails quite a bit more than simply making a connected, appropriate conversation. Again, it is helpful to assign students conversations with foreign tourists and conversations with foreign residents, pointing out the different directions these conversations are likely to take. It is helpful to establish the scenario first, as follows:

Meeting a Tourist

You are sitting on the Shinkansen when a young woman with red hair and green eyes gets on the train and asks you – in English! – if the seat next to you is free. You say that it is and she sits down. A few minutes later she smiles at you. You want to begin a conversation with her, so you start by saying, "Where are you going?" She answers, "Kyoto. I'm just here for two weeks, so I want to see as much of Japan as possible!" Now finish the conversation! Find out where she is from, how long she has been in Japan, what places she has already visited, when she is going back to her country, etc.

You: Where are you going?
She: To Kyoto. I'm just here for two weeks, so I want to see as much of Japan as possible.
You:
She: (And so on. Leave a good margin of paper for students to complete this dialog; have them use both sides of the paper if they can.)

Meeting a Foreign Resident

You are shopping in your local supermarket when you see a tall black man who is also shopping there. He is having trouble because he can't find whatever he is looking for, so you decide to help him. You decide to speak to him in Japanese first to show him you aren't just trying to practice your English on him (and also because you aren't completely sure he speaks English).

You: Nani ka o-komari desu ka? (Can I help you with something?)
He: I'm sorry – I don't speak Japanese.
You: Oh – I see. What are you looking for? Perhaps I could help.
He: I'm looking for something called – wakame – ? Do you know where it is?
You: Yes, it's over there I think.
He: Oh, thank you! I've been in this country three years but I still don't speak much Japanese, I'm ashamed to say.

> After you leave the store you meet the man again, and you decide to go have a beer together. Complete the conversation you have with him. Remember – he has been in Japan for three years, so when you ask him questions, make sure they aren't the kind of things you would ask a tourist.
>
> He: Well, this is a nice place. I like these aka-chochins, don't you?
> You:
> He: (And so on.)

When marking the students' completed dialogs, the main points to look for are as follows:

1) Did the student fully exploit a possible conversation opportunity or did s/he cut it off?
2) Did s/he keep the conversation smooth and connected, or was it full of abrupt changes of subject and unrelated remarks?
3) Were the questions s/he asked appropriate to the conversational partner?
4) Did the student ask any D/A questions, or ask a rather personal question too soon, without a proper approach?

Finally, the students' completed dialogs (with their names erased, of course) are excellent material for global correction. They can be by the class as a group. The teacher can also keep a collection of past classes' efforts and display these instead, if the class is so small that it is obvious who wrote what, or if the problems students have are markedly similar in nature. The students can also use their completed, corrected conversations as dialogs for role plays with other students. These dialogs will mean a good deal more to students than those available in books, as they will contain things the students want to say and involve situations students are very likely to find themselves in.

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Book Reviews

STUDY LISTENING: UNDERSTANDING LECTURES AND TALKS IN ENGLISH. Tony Lynch. Cambridge University Press: Cambridge. 1983.

Recently it has become easier to find authentic, natural English materials for improving listening comprehension skills at the elementary and lower intermediate levels. However, it is still difficult to find good, challenging listening materials for students at intermediate and higher levels. Most texts provide exercises to check comprehension but don't explicitly teach the skills that will enable students to become more efficient listeners. Students learn to be successful in listening to controlled extracts, but are still woefully unsuccessful when actually attempting to listen to conference presentations or lectures.

Study Listening assumes that being able to listen effectively to public talks requires a number or skills, and that these skills can be explicitly taught. Specifically, "the listener has to decide *what* is being said, its *meaning*, its importance and *whether* to note it down, and *how* to note it down." Most listening texts stop after the first two skills, and trust students to acquire the ability to judge importance and note information through repeated exposure to extended discourse. However, students can learn to recognize the same "marker words" that native speakers use in order to more easily follow long presentations.

Lynch's text teaches students to recognize the structure of talks: for example, the verbal markers speakers use to indicate central information, the structure of logical arguments, and how to follow chains of reference. As Lynch states in his preface:

> "Foreign listeners tend to do mental dictation, listening word by word–and even sound by sound. A principal objective of *Study Listening* is to increase the effectiveness of a learner's listening by showing how he can relax the intensity of his listening effort, through using such clues as his knowledge of the topic, the context in which something is said and the way the speaker chooses to express it."

Study Listening provides students with increasingly longer extracts of authentic language and increasingly more complex tasks to perform. The seven talks include such diverse topics as "Problems of Urbanisation," "Competition for Land Use," and "Microtechnology." The speakers provide students with practice listening to a variety of North American and British accents. A feature of *Study Listening* is that extracts from five of the talks appear in each unit for intensive exercises, and again in the note-taking practice units as complete talks. The book takes students through four phases: "finding central information *in sentences*, recognising connections *between sentences*, evaluating the importance of information *in sections of a talk*, and finally, using information from *complete talks*." After each of the first two phases, there is a note-taking unit where "features presented earlier in short exercise extracts are re-presented and exploited." The spiral progression of activities allows students to gain confidence as they clearly see progress in their listening skills.

Although the uncontrolled vocabulary and natural hesitations present in the talks provide valuable practice, they also can be intimidating for students who have never attempted this kind of listening. Especially in the first few units, my students have required a lot of coaching and encouragement. As they see that they can follow the structure of a talk even if they don't understand every word, they are more willing to trust their guesses.

Study Listening works. I have used it with students preparing to enter graduate study in the United States, with students preparing to take the TOEFL, and with students preparing to attend and participate in international conferences. They have all benefitted from Lynch's supposition that prediction and guessing in listening are skills that can be taught, and that all students can become more efficient listeners. They learn to use what they know about the topic, and what they know about English, in addition to what they hear, in order to increase their understanding.

Barbara Hoskins Sakamoto

Barbara Hoskins Sakamoto has taught EFL in Japan for several years. She is currently an instructor at LIOJ, and co-editor of Cross Currents.

BBC BEGINNERS' ENGLISH: Stage One Student's Book. Judy Garton-Sprenger and Simon Greenall. BBC English by Radio and Television. 1987.

Today, with so many English language textbooks on the market, how can one know what constitutes a good text? What motivates the student, teacher, or administrator to buy a particular book? Is it its suitability for the students in question, the number of units it contains, or the quality of its graphic layout? It seems there are nearly as many reasons for purchasing a book as there are students who buy them. *BBC Beginners' English*, Stage I, incorporates many aspects of what a good text should be for beginning students. It has something for everyone. It is well organized, visually appealing, and contains a wide variety of practical activities.

One of the most striking features of this book is its graphic layout. Each of the five units is grouped by color. Throughout the book there is a consistent color pattern: sentence and dialogue clozes are bordered in green, language structures are framed in yellow, and review exercises are outlined in black. Not only are the colors visually attractive, but they also allow the reader to focus on more important information. For example, certain words are highlighted in red to further emphasize the grammatical point being taught. The use of various typefaces helps as well. *BBC Beginners' English* also contains a wide array of pictures, photographs, cartoons, sketches, maps, and painting reprints, many of which add an international dimension to the text.

Of course, these graphics would be of little benefit to the student if they were not organized with a particular educational goal in mind. *BBC Beginners' English* is set up in such a way that students progress sequentially. Most units are structured so that the learner begins with activities that focus on him or herself. Later activities are expanded to include pair and group work. The overall sequencing of units in the book is well planned, taking into account classroom dynamics. For example, in the first five units tasks are kept simple, allowing time for students to become comfortable with one another. The following units deal with progressively more difficult structures.

BBC Beginners' English helps students prepare for many of the practical, real-life situations they will encounter in an English-speaking country; for example: telling time, asking directions, shopping for food and clothing items, making reservations, and ordering at a restaurant. An interesting and useful section, which many other texts do not include, deals with the language involved in coping with an emergency.

BBC Beginners' English provides students with a wide range of activities. Most of the units contain a high percentage of student-centered activities, including matching, listening, pair and group work, individual speaking practice, dialogue and sentence clozes, and information gap exercises. The text also includes practice for building reading skills. There are exercises in scanning for the main idea and important details, as well as others in which students are required to answer questions from reading passages. There is a language review section at the end of the book which allows students further practice with grammatical structures and pronunciation. Most importantly perhaps, *BBC Beginners' English* allows students to express their creativity in designing and acting out their own dialogues.

Although the text presents many interesting and well-organized exercises, there are some areas which could be further explored. Even though descriptions and comparisons are covered, there is no focus on explanation strategies. This could be particularly useful for those students with a limited vocabulary.

In general though, *BBC Beginners' English* is a good introductory text that offers much for elementary level students. The activities are organized in such a way as to encourage language learning in a gradual and relaxed manner. It is a good springboard for students wishing to further their studies in English.

Keith Hoy

Keith Hoy graduated with a degree in Education from the University of British Columbia. He has taught E.S.L. to immigrants in Vancouver and E.F.L. at the Language Institute of Japan. He is currently an instructor at the University of Pittsburgh's Japan Program.

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THIRD ANNUAL MEDITERRANEAN INSTITUTE. July 3-28, 1989; Barcelona, Spain. The institute offers various theoretical and practical courses for English language teachers including an optional program leading to a Master's degree in TESOL. This is being jointly organized by: Teachers College, Columbia University (N.Y.), University of London Institute of Education, University of Barcelona, and ESADE. For more information, please write to: SUMMER INSTITUTE '89, ESADE. Av. Pedaralbes, 60-62, 08034 Barcelona, Spain. Tel: 34-3-203-64-04.

JALT FIFTH ANNUAL INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCE ON LANGUAGE TEACHING/LEARNING. November 3-5, 1989; Notre Dame Seishin University, Okayama. Under the theme "Bridging the Gap: Theory and Practice," this conference will feature over 250 presentations dealing with all aspects of language teaching, learning, and acquisition. The conference features a 1000 square meter Publisher's Display, social events, and a Job Information Center. Over 2000 people from Japan and abroad are expected to participate. For more information please contact: JALT, Lions Mansion Kawaramachi #111, Kawaramachi Matsubara-Agaru, Shimogyo-ku, Kyoto 100, Japan.

Call for Papers: **JALT** welcomes proposals for papers, demonstrations, workshops and colloquia, particularly those touching on this year's theme: "Bridging the Gap: Theory and Practice." Financial assistance cannot be provided to presenters; however, a reduced three-day conference fee is applicable to the chief presenter of each proposal. For more information please contact: JALT, Lions Mansion Kawaramachi #111, Kawaramachi Matsubara-Agaru, Shomogyo-ku, Kyoto 600, Japan.

Call for Papers: **CROSS CURRENTS.** *Cross Currents* welcomes manuscripts concerning all aspects of second language teaching and learning. We are particularly interested in articles on: 1) language teaching and learning, especially regarding English as a Second/Foreign Language, 2) language teaching and learning as they apply to the situation in Japan, 3) cross-cultural communication issues, 4) teaching techniques ready for classroom use, 5) book/video reviews. Please direct all manuscript correspondence to: General Editor, *Cross Currents*, 4-14-1 Shiroyama, Odawara, Kanagawa, Japan 250.

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The Language Institute of Japan (LIOJ) is a nonprofit language school located in Odawara, specializing in intensive, month-long residential English programs for Japanese businessmen and professionals. In addition, the school offers classes in English to the citizens of the Odawara area. Annually, the school offers a week-long summer workshop for Japanese teachers of English All of the programs at LIOJ are designed to help promote better cross-cultural communication and to encourage international understanding. Inquiries concerning LIOJ should be directed to: The Language Institute of Japan, 4-14-1 Shiroyama, Odawara, Kanagawa 250, Japan.

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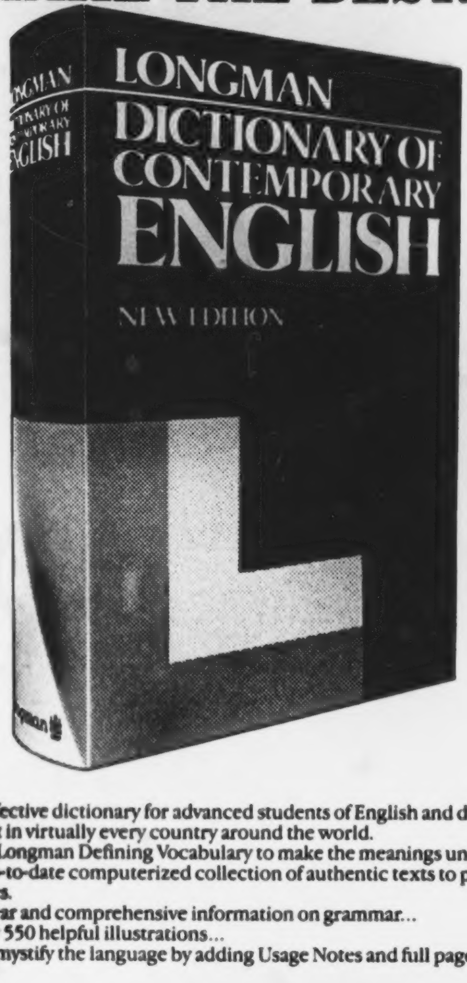
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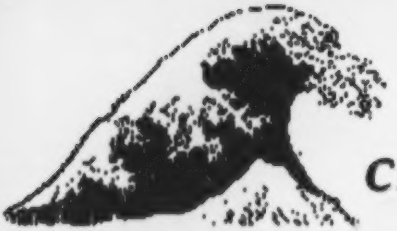

ABOUT CROSS CURRENTS

Cross Currents is a semi-annual publication of the Language Institute of Japan (LIOJ) which provides a forum for the interdisciplinary exchange of ideas within the areas of cross-cultural communication and language skill acquisition and instruction. At *Cross Currents*, we are particularly committed to issues concerning both the theoretical and practical aspects of ESL/EFL instruction, cross-cultural training and learning, English language teaching as it applies to Japan, and English as an International Language. We also welcome reviews of recently published books in these areas.

All articles submitted for consideration should be typed, double-spaced, and in triplicate, with references placed in the body of the text in parentheses with the author's last name, date of the work cited, and page number. Footnotes on substantive matters should appear at the bottom of the page on which the footnote occurs. Please include a paragraph precis of the article, a short biographical sketch, and a bibliography which should conform with *TESOL Quarterly* style. Manuscripts should be 5-20 pages in length. Manuscripts will not be returned unless return postage is included. Authors of articles accepted for publication will receive twenty reprints. Authors will retain the right to use the article in future publications, provided that *Cross Currents* is acknowledged as the original publisher. The author is expected to refer all requests to re-publish his or her work to *Cross Currents*. *Cross Currents* will not give permission to reproduce any work published here without consent of the author.

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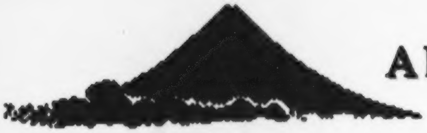

ABOUT THIS ISSUE

This issue of *Cross Currents* marks the beginning of a new era in the history of our journal. As you the reader will have noticed, Vol. XVI, No.1, has a distinctive new graphic layout and Japanese motif, thanks to the magic of desktop publishing. Our familiar "globe and gengo" cover design, which has served us so well in the past, has been supplanted by "the wave," the new symbol of *Cross Currents* for the years to come.

It is perhaps fitting that the keynote article in this newest edition of *Cross Currents* was written by Masahide Shibusawa, the founder of the Language Institute of Japan and author of the first article ever published in *Cross Currents* in 1972. "Twenty Years of LIOJ" is an insightful look at the changing nature of Japan during the past two decades by a man who has been one of the leading figures in the internationalization of modern Japanese society.

"Communication across Cultures" examines this process of internationalization from the point of view of language. Sen Nishiyama, for many years a highly respected simultaneous translator for the Japanese government, provides a fascinating account of linguistic problems that arise as Japanese and Western cultures meet.

In keeping with *Cross Currents'* commitment to English as an International Language, we are pleased to present an article by one of the world's leading authorities in EIL, Braj Kachru. "Teaching World Englishes" establishes a comprehensive list of resources for those who wish to delve into EIL in more detail.

"What English for the Japanese?" approaches the subject of English as an International Language from the Japanese standpoint. In this article, Emiko Yukawa examines the question of what model of English the Japanese people should adopt.

"Why Can't Taro and Hanako Learn English?" takes us to the other side of the Pacific for a study of Japanese children learning English in American schools. Here, Keiko Samimy discusses many of the socio-cultural factors which influence the L2 learning process for these children.

In "The Placement Test: A Useful or Harmful Tool?", Malinee Chandavimol looks at the implementation of ESL testing procedures at Chulalongkorn University in Bangkok, and gives the reader some insight into the state of English language acquisition in Thailand.

We have two Bright Ideas in this issue of *Cross Currents*. "Simulations and the Integrative Approach to Language Teaching" by Katsuyoshi Sanematsu deals with many of the practical aspects of introducing simulations into the classroom, while "Failed Encounters—Exploiting Failure for Success in the Language Learning Classroom" by Ruth Wajnryb provides a number of original ideas on how to turn failure in language encounters into a pedagogic tool.

Finally, this issue also includes a book review by Eric Herbel of *Early Business Contacts*, published by Prentice Hall International Ltd.

This will also be the last issue for our departing Editor, Roger Davies. We at *Cross Currents* would like to take this opportunity to thank Roger for his hard work and dedication throughout his editorship and wish him well in his future endeavors.

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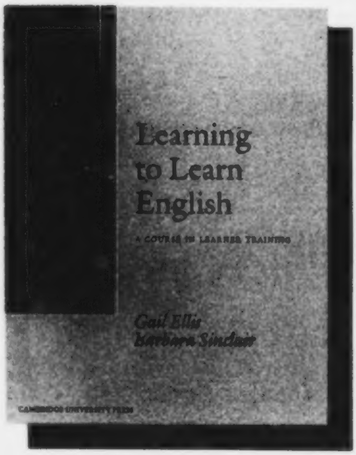
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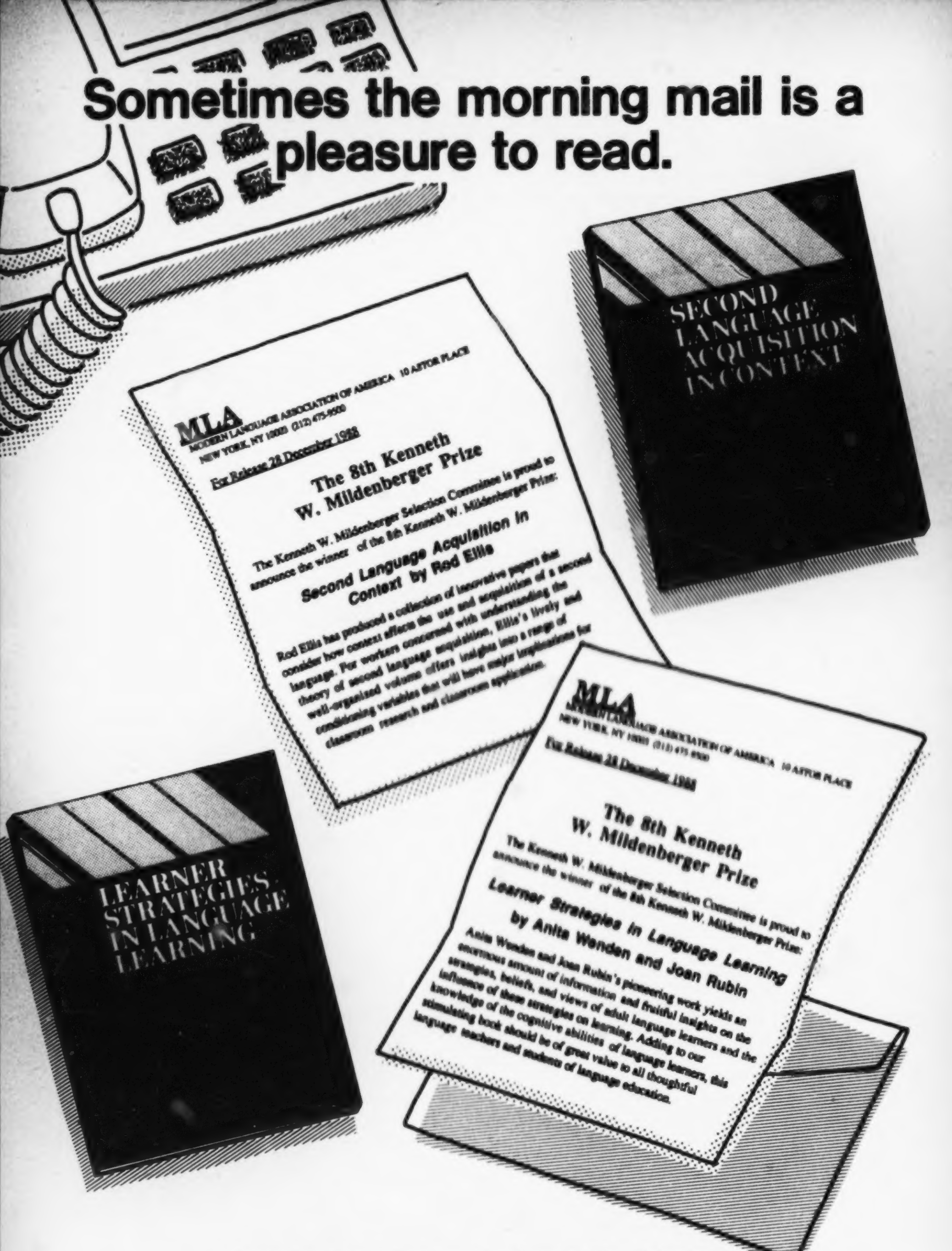
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Vol. XVI, No. 1
Summer 1989

Twenty Years of LIOJ

Masahide Shibusawa

When the Language Institute of Japan commenced in the spring of 1968, Japan was at the height of its legendary high growth of the 1960s. Recovering at last from the trauma of defeat and destruction of World War II, the country was busy with giant industrial complexes springing up everywhere, changing not only its landscape but also the perception and attitude of its people. Spurred by the resounding success of the government's avowed program of "doubling the national income," a whole range of consumer goods, gadgets, and appliances flooded the country with the surplus spilling over into markets around the world. A quest for the country's role in the world, long buried under the surface, was coming to the fore in the nation's consciousness.

Reflecting this brisk pace of expansion and concomitant internationalization of the country's economy, LIOJ was required, from the very beginning, to cater to the needs of Japanese businessmen, mostly at the mid-management level, who were assigned to positions abroad and sent to the institute by their companies for pre-departure emergency training in language and culture. The institute responded to these needs by developing a "total immersion" and "English-only" residential course for businessmen, which was to become one of the pillars of its program, along with classes for the commuting citizens of Odawara city and its vicinity, as well as the annual summer workshops specially designed for Japanese teachers of English.

It was immediately obvious that, though highly-motivated, intelligent, and well-educated, these businessmen had considerable difficulty in using English to communicate with foreigners. This was in spite of the extensive knowledge of English grammar and vocabulary which they had acquired through intense language instruction, four to six hours a week, given continuously for six to eight years in high schools and colleges. It is an unfortunate rule that language education in schools is not necessarily effective in developing oral skills, not just in Japan, but all over the world. However, this gap between knowledge of the language and ability to communicate was particularly pronounced in Japan, not so much because of a deficiency in the education itself, but because of the peculiar difficulty the Japanese appeared to have in understanding the working pattern of non-Japanese minds.

Such a basic problem in cross-cultural understanding was obviously not in keeping with the way the Japanese were so successful in selling their products abroad, which naturally required an in-depth understanding not only of the rules of supply and demand but also of the psychology of foreign consumers. Nor did it match with the intense interest demonstrated by the Japanese toward foreign cultures throughout their long history. Few countries were as eager to import other people's thoughts and expertise as Japan. The sheer volume of translated materials, from Chinese classics to European literature, from Marxist monographs to the current American bestsellers, available in every bookstore across the country, testifies to the extraordinary commitment of the Japanese to learn from the cultures of the world.

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Perhaps one may explain such inconsistency by arguing that, despite its volume and intensity, the pattern of Japan's acculturation was somewhat different from the experience of other countries. For example, being an island nation had long precluded Japan from intimate interaction with other nations as was the norm for countries which shared borders with others. Moreover, the journey across the channel of water which separates Japan from the Eurasian continent was hazardous enough to prevent regular contact. Therefore, unlike the people of the British Isles, whose history was shaped through interaction with the Romans, the Vikings, and the French, who arrived one after the other, Japan's access to continental cultures was primarily through the trickles of immigrants from Korea, or occasional envoys who dared to make the risky and expensive journey to and from China. Even the Mongolian fleets which set out to conquer Japan in 1268 and 1281 were sunk off Kyushu island by the timely visits of typhoons.

A well known anthropologist, Dr. Chie Nakane, argues that Japan's acceptance of foreign culture was carried out essentially by collecting fragments rather than taking it in as a whole. Using the metaphor that Japan took in foreign cultures in words rather than in sentences, she compared Japan's experience with those of other Asian countries which were compelled to take in other people's cultures in toto (in paragraphs), either through foreign invasion or colonial domination.

Perhaps this worked to Japan's advantage in that it was able to take only the portions of foreign culture which were useful for its own purposes, with little or no threat to its traditional identity. However, on the other side of the coin, Japn had to suffer from a "built-in" difficulty in understanding what "made other countries tick," or in realizing the implications that its own activities might impose on others. This proved to be a fatal deficiency as the country had to live in an increasingly interdependent world. In fact, it was beginning to take a toll in the early 1970s when the impact of Japan's presence began to be felt by its neighbors.

The way Japan was thrown into a state a utter confusion in 1971 in the wake of President Nixon's surprise announcement on the Sino-US rapprochement was a measure of how blind Japan was about the changing political reality in the Asian Pacific region. Perhaps, the Nixon-Kissinger team was overly secretive about its initiative, even to the extent of insulting its allies in the region. However, much to the reason for Japan's fit of confusion lay in its own failure to foresee the imminent shift which the United States was to undertake in its Asia policy, if only to expedite the process of dislodging itself from the prolonged quagmire of the war in Vietnam. Predictably, such ignorance and naivite led to the fall of the government of Mr. Eisaku Sato, which had the longest record of survival in Japan's political history.

Then came the surge of anti-Japanese sentiment throughout Southeast Asia in 1973-74. This was another verdict on Japan's ignorance of the impact which its unrestrained economic expansion was causing to the still fragile socio-economic bases of these countries. Thus, the 1970s turned out for Japan to be a decade of unprecedented shocks and traumas. The most intractable problem which dominated Japan's external relations throughout the 1970s and beyond was the trade dispute with the United States which, beginning with the so-called textile wrangle of 1969-71, was to escalate to steel, TVs, automobiles, etc. As though these were not enough, the oil crisis hit Japan in 1973, pulling the rug from under its avowed policy of industrial expansion which had been so successful in the previous decade.

LIOJ was at a vantage point for observing these "shocks and traumas" unfolding and tormenting the country through dialogues with its participants, businessmen, teachers, and citizens of Odawara. Despite these difficulties, however, the country's attitude was clearly changing. People suffered much less from inhibition in communicating with foreigners, partly because the level of proficiency in English was rising throughout the nation, and partly because there was a new sense of confidence among the Japanese about the country's performance in general.

Indeed, Japan was not only able to take these difficulties in stride, but it also turned them into blessings in disguise. The Sino-US rapprochement has liberated Japan from the constraints of the cold war, enabling it to build its own network of relations with its Asian neighbors. Likewise, the anti-Japanese fervor of Southeast Asia in 1973-74 turned out to be a precious learning process, sensitizing the industrial sector to the needs and problems of the communities in which they operated. It was instrumental in the establishment of the Japan Foundation, the government's first attempt in the area of philanthropy and cultural exchange. This was followed by many private institutes with the expressed purpose of promoting dialogue and understanding with Asian countries. LIOJ was able to take part by inviting Thai teachers of English to its annual teachers' workshops as well as by offering scholarships to Asian students who wanted to participate in its businessmen's program. Similar offers were later extended to South Korea and, since 1982, to the People's Republic of China.

The trauma of the oil shock was overcome partly by the all out national endeavor for energy conservation and reducing the costs of production, which led to a surge of innovation in the field of engineering, giving Japan a clear competitive edge over its trade partners. Thus, Japan was well prepared to cope with the second round of the oil crisis which descended on the world in 1979, pushing many of the Western economies into serious recession. As a result, Japan's position in the world was greatly reinforced. This was attested to by the fact that it was asked to be a member of the seven power summit which was launched in 1976 as a vehicle for promoting policy coordination among the leading industrial powers of the world.

However, for all its success in the 1970s, Japan was to go through another testing period in the 1980s. First, there were eight years of the Reagan administration, whose economic policy was based on the unique assumption that it could cut taxes, increase military spending, and reduce budget deficits, all at the same time. This led to a renewed strength of the United States, and was doubtlessly one of the factors behind Mr. Gorbachev's bold experiment in Perestroika, which led to a decline of communism and the de facto demise of the cold war.

On the economic front, it accelerated the "globalization" of the US market, escalating its dependence on manufactured imports, and accelerating the transfer of production facilities abroad, with the inevitable result of runaway growth in the nation's debt, reaching a staggering $500 billion by the end of 1988. Predictably, this led to a steady worsening of US trade deficits, causing a serious diequilibrium in the global economy. As though to make matters even worse, commodity prices began to plummet in 1983, including those for food and petroleum, something which was hardly expected in the previous decade when the resource scare was a dominant element in the economic psychology of the world.

Pressured by the worsening trade imbalance, the Reagan administration shifted its policy emphasis and, collaborating with other industrial economies, initiated an overall exchange rate realignment in 1985. Predictably, the value of the yen appreciated in leaps and bounds, and by the end of 1987, Japan's assets had literally doubled in dollar terms. No economy of Japan's size has ever gone through such a sudden and drastic change in history.

The way Japan was able to overcome terms of trade considerably worsened by the higher yen, with its sheer industrial competitiveness as well as vigorous out-sourcing strategy was highly commendable. Perhaps the magnitude of this success is comparable to the country's high growth in the 1960s, and to the way it had to overcome the impact of the oil crises of the 1970s. As a result, by the end of the 1980s, Japan has emerged as the biggest creditor nation in the world, financing a third of the US treasury debt, with enormous cash flow to support the extensive globalization of its economy as well as as increasingly bigger R&D investment which will assure its survival in the future. Considering that the country was but an apprentice economy only 20 years before, this has indeed been a spectacular achievement.

However, whether the country will be able to overcome the kind of problems with which the nation is currently beset, in a fashion similar to the way it was able to respond to the various shocks and traumas of the past, is still to be seen. The relationship with the United States is being strained to the danger point, partly because of Japan's inability to reduce its trade surplus, and partly because of increasingly vituperative criticism of Japan in the United States, in part a reflection of frustration over the magnitude of its own economic problems. In addition, Japan's political system is showing curious signs of fatigue. The leadership of the Liberal Democratic Party, which has reigned over Japan's spectacular growth process so successfully for the past three decades, appears to be losing its "will to govern" just at the time when its political base is being seriously undermined.

It is unfortunate that Japan has to face such difficulties when it has at last become able to make a substantial contribution to the world. Reflecting the burgeoning power of its economy, there is a growing public acceptance of the fact that the nation should take global responsibility, as shown in the enormous increase in the latest budget outlay for overseas assistance, as well as in its commitment of $1 billion at the conference on the Multilateral Aid Initiative for the Philippines held in Tokyo recently. One can only hope that the current political turmoil will not retract or slow down such commendable trends.

All in all, Japan has come a long way in "internationalizing" itself in the past twenty years. More than eight million people travel abroad every year, while half a million Japanese live outside the country. There is still much to be desired in building proficiency in English. Similarly, the peculiar hesitancy to communicate with foreigners still persists. However, there is little doubt that the "will to learn" is as strong as ever, prevailing in virtually all sectors of society. At the insistent request of Odawara city hall, LIOJ has lately begun to take on a program of language and culture in its public school system.

Clearly, LIOJ faces the need to redefine its program in order to make sure that it can meet Japan's, and Asia's, needs for the 1990s and beyond. It is fortunate that, in addition to the native speaker teachers from North America, the institute has been able to welcome Indians, Filippinos, Australians, and Chinese from Hong Kong into its faculty. This is quite timely because the institute will surely be called upon in the future to conduct not only US-Japan, but also multilateral cultural interaction.

LIOJ was not conceived just as a place to teach language. It was hoped that the institute would become a place where the teachers, the office staff, and the students could experience growth, personal as well as cultural, through their active involvement in its program. Without such creative intent, it would hardly be able to meet the needs of the future, or survive and thrive in this rapidly changing environment. The institute hopes that, with constant endeavor for regeneration, it will be able to serve the country and the region continuously in the coming years and decades.

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Communication across Cultures

Sen Nishiyama

Communication across cultures can cause great confusion and numerous problems even when both parties have the best of intentions. Japan and the United States possess cultures with widely varying standards, patterns of behavior, and ways of thinking. These differences are often reflected in language and must be taken into account when communication takes place.

When we use various words in English, it is assumed that the meanings of these words are based upon the culture and the society of the English-speaking people. But if a Japanese speaker of English uses certain words which have accepted meanings in the English language, s/he may still be basing these meanings on his or her own Japanese culture. For example, let us take a simple word such as *hamlet*. We find that in Japanese it is translated as *sonraku*, and we assume, therefore, when we see the word *sonraku* in Japanese that it refers to a group of houses in some rural area of Japan with people living there all of whom have Japanese faces and who behave like Japanese. The relationships among the families in this particular hamlet are based upon Japanese patterns of behavior, and even just this one small word has in its background quite a different set of conditions from those that would exist for a *hamlet* in the British Isles. Thus, there is this basic problem of the accepted meanings of words in their original language, and the intended meanings of these same words in another language.

Relative vs. Absolute Standards

I would like, therefore, to take up the meaning of one particular word, as an good example of these different sets of conditions mentioned above, as I feel that it relates to what is likely to be a major issue in the not too distant future in terms of trade relations between the United States and Japan. The word is *fair*, or *fairness*. You have read in the newspapers about the recent omnibus trade bill recently passed by the United States Congress. One of the major issues in this trade bill is what they call the Super 301 clause. This clause states that if a trading partner of the United States is found to be conducting trade practices which are deemed to be *unfair*, then the President is authorized to take retaliatory action. Now, what these retaliatory measures are going to be is something that the President is going to have to decide, but it could be almost anything, ranging from quite a large increase in tariffs to the actual prohibition of importation of a particular product. From the American standpoint perhaps it makes good sense, but from the Japanese point of view it sounds as though the Americans are going to claim the arbitrary right to decide what is *fair* and what is *not fair*, that anytime something is inconvenient for them, they will decide that that is *unfair*. Now, if we look up the word *fair* in an English dictionary, it says, "...without prejudice, without discrimination, sex, race, or creed, and conducted in a just manner," and so forth. If you translate all these terms into Japanese and compare them with a Japanese dictionary's definition of the Japanese term for *fairness*, which is either *kousei* or *kouhei*, you find almost exactly the same definition. It

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Sen Nishiyama is a highly respected simultaneous translator, having interpreted for American Ambassadors and Japanese Prime Ministers. Mr. Nishiyama also simultaneously translated all the NASA Apollo moon projects for NHK. This paper was presented in somewhat different form at the LIOJ Summer Workshop 1988.

is very easy to assume, therefore, that the Japanese understand the term *fairness* in the same way that Americans do. But I wish to submit here a possible difference in the foundations of interpreting *fairness* which may cause serious difficulties between the two countries. The Japanese people, and very probably most peoples of East Asia, have been influenced greatly by Buddhism and Confucianism. Whether or not people today are actually practicing Buddhists or not, the whole of Japanese culture and life has some very deep roots in Buddhist teachings, and the Japanese language is filled with many, many Buddhist terms. Confucianism and Buddhism teach us that our relations with other people and our relations with society and with nature are based upon a relative connection. In other words, the Japanese standard of *fairness* is a relative standard. Many aspects of behavior here in Japan are based upon what society expects, what other people expect, and how we relate to them. So our standards of behavior are relative. On the other hand, in Western countries, even though there is a lot of consideration given to relations among individuals, the relation of the individual to society, and the individual to nature, the question of whether a particular pattern of behavior is proper or not is usually based upon Judeo-Christian traditions in which there is an absolute. In other words, there is an absolute standard by which people can measure the quality of their behavior and the quality of their lives. And so, while of course Americans are concerned about what their neighbors think of them and how well they're going to get along with their friends, the environment, the community, and so forth, nevertheless, their basic guide is based upon a monotheistic philosophy, whether it be Judaism, Christianity, or Islam. There is a basic, absolute standard. So, if we try to consider from that standpoint how an American might define *fairness*, whether a thing is *fair* or not, it is very likely that that American would be quite influenced by what would be right in the eyes of God. Not in the eyes of society, but in the eyes of God.

I'll give you an interesting example of this contrast between the Japanese and American attitudes towards what is considered right. There is an ongoing trend study that is being carried out by the Japanese Institute of Statistical Mathematics. This study is based upon a standard questionnaire in which there are many questions asked that impinge upon the customs and the mores of the Japanese people. The first nationwide survey was conducted in 1953 and has been continued every five years in essentially the same way. One of the questions that was asked, if I may paraphrase, was, "If you are selecting a course of action, which do you think is better..., going ahead and doing what you think is right, even though it is against custom, or do you think it is better to follow custom?" In 1983, 30% of Japanese said that they would do what they thought was right, 40% said that they would follow custom, and close to 30% said that it depends on the case. Now these are very typical Japanese attitudes, never "yes" or "no," but somewhere in between. In 1978, the same question was asked in the United States. Here, some 75% said that they would do what is right even if it were against custom, only about 10-15% said that they would follow custom, and only about 5% said that it depends upon the case. In other words, Americans are much more likely to do what they think is right regardless of what the community thinks. This also reflects the individualistic attitude of Americans. The results show that Americans, and probably Europeans too, make decisions on what they feel is right as a result of certain moral principles that are based on an absolute concept, which probably finds its roots in the scriptures or various teachings in Judaism or Christianity. In Japan, on the other hand, since the relationships among individuals and with society are emphasized, and a great deal of importance is placed on the harmony that must be maintained in society, the responses to questions of this type tend to be more vague.

So, when one considers these differences, one must ask, when Americans say that something is *fair*, what are they really basing their standards on? And when Japanese think that something is *fair*, what are they basing their standards on? And I would submit that if the Japanese continue to base their assumptions of *fairness* on their own standards and Americans do the same, we're going to have some trouble. And that trouble may just might turn out to be very serious unless the President makes some very wise decisions on certain things.

Patterns of Behavior

The Toshiba incident is an example of a very serious difference between cultures. It was revealed in actual fact that Soviet submarines became more silent a few years before Toshiba exported their technology to the Russians. And while this technology may have contributed to further silencing the propellers of Soviet submarines, it was not really a main cause. But, nevertheless, this was in violation of the Cocom Agreement. There is no denying that. The parent company, Toshiba, owns about half of Toshiba Machinery, the subsidiary company which exported the machines. Toshiba Machinery has its own autonomous management and made these decisions quite independently from the parent company. Nevertheless, the Chairman and President of the parent company resigned and expressed an apology for their, let us say, stepson, who had done something wrong. This is very typical of a Japanese pattern of behavior—the taking of joint responsibility. When the Japanese people saw the apology published and saw the resignation of the top management, their reaction was that they did an honorable thing. There was a great deal of sympathy for the Chairman and the President. The Japanese press treated all this in a very sympathetic way, and in fact, I think that the reliability and trust that the Japanese public has in Toshiba actually increased. However, it had exactly the reverse effect in the United States. The fact that the Chairman and President resigned was taken as proof that they were in on the crime.

This Toshiba case is a very significant example of a problem in communication, not only verbal, but behavioral communication. In the United States Toshiba also published a full page ad apologizing for their subsidiary company. In the ad itself, they said that although Toshiba had nothing to do with the Cocom violation, they nevertheless felt responsible. For most Americans that doesn't make good sense. They would feel that if Toshiba apologizes to the American people, it proves that they are at fault, so in fact, the ad had a very negative effect. What should have been done in the United States? One possibility would have been to claim absolute innocence and explain why—i.e., we had nothing to do with the crime, we deplore the crime, punitive measures are being taken, etc. However, if they had done that, the Japanese people would have lost trust in Toshiba because they were making excuses and refusing to take the blame. You have two different approaches in the interpretation of a particular act that are almost diametrically opposite, so it is a very serious dilemma.

Here is another example. When a Japanese student in Paris murdered a college girl, and this particular Japanese student was unbalanced, the student's father resigned from his company as President of that company to take responsibility for what his son did. When a young American shot President Reagan just outside a hotel in Washington, D.C. and seriously injured his press attache, what did the father do? The father hired some of the most expensive lawyers he could find to protect his son in court. A completely different way of taking responsibility! I don't know whether the father apologized to President Reagan, but he probably did not. Again, that young man was mentally unbalanced, but the father did not take responsibility in the same way that the Japanese father did. And I think that this difference in the pattern of behavior is rooted in some quite different ideas of what is right and wrong.

Figures of Speech

Another simple example of confusion that can exist in bilingual communication is based upon folklore. Many years ago there was a nationwide survey conducted in the United States about Japan. On this particular occasion, a question was asked about what animal came to mind when thinking about Japan. The largest number of respondents chose the fox. And, of course the Japanese were shocked, and there were all kinds of comments in the Japanese press about how we were being compared to foxes by the Americans. I was working in the American embassy at the time so and I had some suspicions about the Japanese interpretation of the English word *fox*. I asked a number of Americans if they thought the fox had a good or bad image, and most of them told me that it is much more positive than negative. They added that, of course, if you wish to stretch the point, if a person is a fox you've got to watch out for him because he'll outdo you or he'll be smarter than you. So, in general, the image of a fox was somewhat complimentary to the Japanese. It was certainly more complimentary than the Japanese image of *kitsune* because in Japanese folklore, a fox is an animal that is able to change its form into a beautiful girl and play tricks on some innocent farmer. And in Japanese fairy tales, the sympathy is with the poor farmer, who is constantly being fooled by the fox. In other words, if you define the word *fox* in both English and Japanese, you find very similar characteristics. The fox is considered a very sly, cunning, and intelligent animal. So both the Japanese and English descriptions seem to agree. But, in fact, the term *fox* gives a very different impression in each language. So, when figures of speech are used, this difference in meaning between languages must be taken into account. And this is certainly one of the problems in bilingual communication. We must always be very careful about, and be willing to understand, how the other side thinks.

Patterns of Thought

Another factor in this question of bilingual communication is that of thought order. We often talk about the reverse word order of Japanese as compared with English. And, of course, word order itself undoubtedly has an influence on how we think about certain things as we verbalize them or express them in a particular language. If I have forgotten my notes, let us say, in the office upstairs on the desk or on the table in the sitting area and I want to mention this in the English language, I would say, "Well, I'm sorry but I forgot my notes on the table in the sitting area in the office upstairs." In Japanese, on the other hand, I would say, "Upstairs office sitting area table on top notes I forgot." This is almost exactly the opposite order of presentation. So, when a Japanese person starts speaking in English, even if s/he is very fluent in English, s/he may think these images in the same order as in the Japanese language, and then based on that, start expressing these images in English. And even though s/he uses correct grammar and proper English word order, as far as the thoughts are concerned, the order of these thoughts may be the same as when s/he is speaking Japanese.

I was once watching a Trans-Pacific discussion between several Japanese leaders here in Japan and their American counterparts in Washington D.C. They were talking about trade issues in English and a question was directed by one of the American senators to a Japanese political leader who spoke fluent English. The senator said,"I would like to ask about the effect of the high value of the yen against the dollar, this great change in currency exchange rates that has been taking place over the last month. How much has this change in currency rates affected your exports?" And the Japanese leader, speaking fluent English, began by saying, "Our policy is a policy of free trade and under the conditions of free trade we intend to continue our exports and continue our imports." And he made quite a lengthy speech on the whole philosophy of free trade that had nothing to do with exchange rates, until finally at the end, it sounded as though he was implying that with the kind of effort the Japanese were putting into it, even this change in exchange rates was eventually not going to effect Japanese exports too much. But, of course, he didn't say this directly. The image of the senator came on the screen too, and he looked very puzzled because he wasn't quite sure whether the gentleman in Tokyo completely understood the question. The answer the American expected to the question, "How has the change in exchange rates affected your exports?" was either, "Well, it hasn't affected it at all", or, "It has damaged our exports by a certain percentage." Whatever the response, he wanted a clear answer, which of course he didn't get. Later, I tried in my own mind to translate what was said into Japanese and, in fact, to me, using Japanese thought patterns, it all sounded very natural. But at the time, because I was listening to him in English, it sounded rather unnatural to me also.

So, in negotiations between Japan and America it is very important for Japanese to keep in mind the communicating style and the order of thought that is to be presented to the other side when speaking in English. If Americans are speaking in Japanese, they had better be very careful that they express things in the way that Japanese expect, because if they use a pattern of thought that is typically English when speaking Japanese, it could well sound abrasive or even insulting to Japanese, even if that was not the speaker's intent.

Formulaic Expressions

Another difference between English and Japanese has to do with formulaic expressions or "pat phrases." The Japanese language has a great many pat phrases and most of them are expressions of appreciation. For each situation and person, there is usually a pat phrase that expresses appreciation for that condition, or expresses recognition of that condition. Every day we use hundreds of these formulaic expressions. If we don't make use of these pat phrases we are considered uncultured, rude, or at the very least, odd. So the normal expectation is that for every situation that we come across, there is a particular phrase that we can use. But now if we shift into English, there are many pat phrases in the English language also. Japanese students studying English often learn many of these pat phrases because they are simple and they can pick them up quickly. But if the Japanese uses *only* these pat phrases for a variety of situations, the usual attitude of the native speaker of English is that this person is really not very creative. The person is really not using his or her imagination to express a particular thought adequately. In the English language it is necessary to identify clearly what the situation is and what the appreciation to be expressed is about.

As an example, one cannot merely say "thank you" as an expression of appreciation to a friend you happen across who is working very hard and sweating in the hot sun. He's not doing it for you, so you can't thank him for it. But you want to express some kind of pat phrase that expresses the appreciation that he is working so hard. Of course, in Japanese there are all kinds of ways. You can say "gokoro sama," "taihen desu ne," "otsukara sama," etc. But in English, the only thing you could possibly say would be, "Well, my friend, I see you're sweating it out and I sure sympathize with you, sweating it out like that, but I'm sure glad I'm not in your shoes," or something like that. At least you would recognize the fact that he was working hard, but you would have to tell him exactly what it was you were trying to say. In one sense, it is much more complicated to try to do this in the English language than it is in Japanese. So in the one language, the use of pat phrases shows that you are equipped with the proper etiquette. In the other language, the use of pat phrases can make a person assume that that speaker does not have much originality, is not very creative.

International Integration

Finally, I would like to suggest that the economies of the world are becoming very rapidly integrated internationally. For example, let us look at just one sector of the economy in Japan and the United States, the automobile industry. Just a few years ago there was some very serious trade friction centering on the issue of automobiles, and Americans were blaming the Japanese for being unfair. They said the Japanese were overexporting their cars to the United States and flooding the American market and running the American automobile manufacturers out of business. There was a tremendous amount of confrontation and hard feeling. But after that round of controversy worked itself out, the Japanese voluntarily restricted the number of cars exported to the United States and American automobile manufacturers began to retool and redesign their cars. And as things began to turn around, the Americans began to say, "Well, if you can't beat 'em, join 'em." Now, the Ford Motor Company owns about 25% of Mazda, and Chrysler and Mitsubishi are tied together in a similar way. The major automobile manufacturers in the United States and Japan now have joint ventures, interlocking technical exchange agreements, manufacturing agreements, and so on. The two industries are so well knitted together that there is just no way that there will be any parting. The head of the Ford Motor Company in Japan, an American, once said to me that we are now so mutually interdependent on each other in the automobile industry that we are just one company working closely together, and that more and more, we are going to see areas in which problems will be ironed out by the businessmen themselves.

The confrontations in the semi-conductor industry is another example where many close relationships are being built. And once again, there will be points of friction, but there will also be some strong, important areas of agreement. The economies of our different countries are becoming integrated, but as this happens, there is an increased diversification of culture. The Japanese way of doing things is being studied by Americans. The American way of doing things is being studied by Japanese. Lifestyles on both sides of the Pacific being examined and exchanged. And this, I believe, enriches both our cultures. Japan has been greatly strengthened by the cultural input that has come from China, Korea, the United States and Europe, and other parts of the world. And one can say the same about the West. The input from Oriental culture into the West has made a large contribution to the cultural enrichment of these countries.

Conclusion

Finally, I would simply like to say is this....If only politicians would stay out of these problems, keep their mouths shut, and leave intercultural relations to the people who know them best in the business world, then I think we would have a much more peaceful world.

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I LEUDAR & P K BROWNING (UK), Meaning, maxims of communication and language games.
S CARPENTER & D C O'CONNELL (USA), More than meets the ear: some variables affecting pause reports.
R L ROSNOW, J L ESPOSITO & L GIBNEY (USA), Factors influencing rumor spreading: replication and extension.
M ARIEL (Israel), Female and male stereotypes in Irsaeli literature and media: evidence from introductory patterns.

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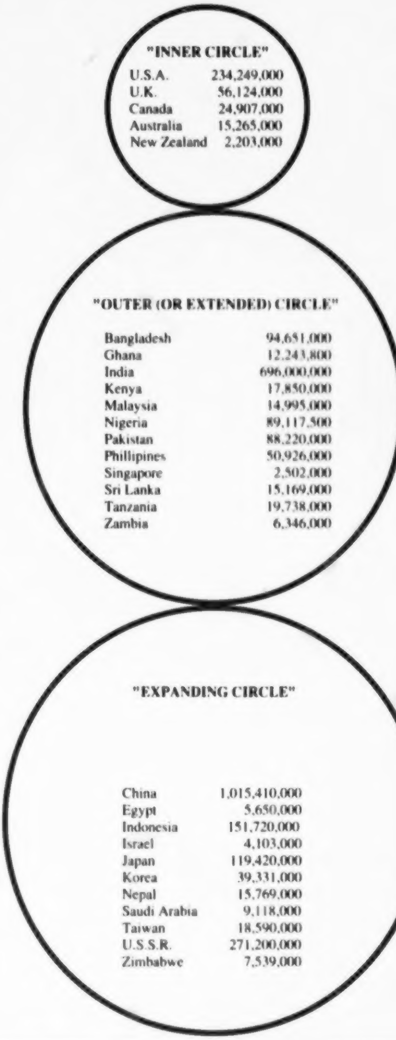
Teaching World Englishes

Braj B. Kachru

The present international status of English is rightly justified on the basis of the numerical strength of its speakers; the cross-cultural and localized functional range the language has developed in various domains; the excellence of its literary traditions; and the dominance of the the language in trade, commerce, banking, tourism, technology, and scientific research. But this is not the whole story about the diffusion of English.[1]

What draws an increasing number of people in the remote parts of the world to the study of English is the social attitude toward the language. It is, therefore, understandable why the most fundamentalist and anti-Western governments (e.g., Libya and Iran) consider it advantageous to use English in their rhetoric for presenting their points of view before the world. And it is not surprising that most anti-English movements in Asia and Africa use English as the medium to whip-up anti-English feelings. And, even those who are prominent in anti-English movements are pragmatically very sensible parents: They see to it that their children receive excellent education in English medium schools. After all, English has power and they want their children to be equipped with this powerful linguistic tool (Kachru 1986a).

However, this cross-cultural functional range of English is very rarely used, to demonstrate the *internationalization* of the language: Its acculturation in contexts which have resulted in new contours of the language and literature in linguistic innovations, in literary creativity, and in the expansion of the cultural identities of the language. The implications of



"INNER CIRCLE"	
U.S.A.	234,249,000
U.K.	56,124,000
Canada	24,907,000
Australia	15,265,000
New Zealand	2,203,000

"OUTER (OR EXTENDED) CIRCLE"	
Bangladesh	94,651,000
Ghana	12,243,800
India	696,000,000
Kenya	17,850,000
Malaysia	14,995,000
Nigeria	89,117,500
Pakistan	88,220,000
Phillipines	50,926,000
Singapore	2,502,000
Sri Lanka	15,169,000
Tanzania	19,738,000
Zambia	6,346,000

"EXPANDING CIRCLE"	
China	1,015,410,000
Egypt	5,650,000
Indonesia	151,720,000
Israel	4,103,000
Japan	119,420,000
Korea	39,331,000
Nepal	15,769,000
Saudi Arabia	9,118,000
Taiwan	18,590,000
U.S.S.R.	271,200,000
Zimbabwe	7,539,000

Braj B. Kachru is professor of comparative literature and education at the University of Illinois at Urbana. He is a leading authority on English as an International Language.

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[1] A shorter version of this paper has appeared in ERIC/CLL News Bulletin, Vol. 12, No. 1, 1988.

the internationalization of English have yet to reflect in the curricula of teacher training programs, in the methodology of teaching, in understanding the sociolinguistic profile of the language and in cross-cultural awareness.

The current sociolinguistic profile of English may be viewed in terms of three concentric circles as outlined on the previous page.

These circles represent the types of spread, the patterns of acquisition, and the functional allocation of English in diverse cultural contexts.[2] The INNER CIRCLE refers to the traditional cultural and linguistic bases of English. The OUTER CIRCLE represents the institutional- of the users of English (i.e., 700 million), about 57 percent are non-native users (Strevens 1982). The optimistic figure of two billion users, of course, increases this percentage significantly (Crystal 1985). However, the term "users" is rather tricky, particularly in the non-native context. The vagueness of its use is somewhat reduced by restricting it to "educated speakers" though by the use of that term too we are opening a can of worms; we will not go into that digression here. The result of this spread is that formally and functionally English now has multi-cultural identities. The term "English" does not capture this sociolinguistic reality; the term "Englishes" does.

Why, then, are the implications of this sociolinguistic reality not recognized? The answer to this question is rather complex. It involves issues of attitude, of power and politics, and of history and economics. These attitudes are nurtured by numerous fallacies about the users and uses of English across cultures. I shall briefly discuss six of these fallacies here.

Six Fallacies about the Users and Uses of English

The fallacies are of several types: some based on unverified hypotheses, some based on partially valid hypotheses, and some due to ignorance of facts.

Fallacy 1: That in the Outer and Expanding Circles, English is essentially learnt to interact with the native speakers of the language. This, of course, is only partially true (e.g., Smith ed.1983; Kachru 1988a and 1988b). The reality is that in its localized varieties, English has become the main vehicle for interaction among its non-native users, with distinct linguistic and cultural backgrounds — Indians interacting with Nigerians, Japanese with Sri Lankans, Germans with Singaporeans, and so on. In such interactions, the *English* English, or *American* English conventions of language use are not only not relevant, these may be considered inappropriate by the interlocutors. The culture bound localized strategies of, for example, politeness, persuasion, and phatic communion "transcreated" in English are more effective and culturally significant (Kachru1981).

Fallacy 2: That English is necessarily learnt as a tool to understand and teach the American or British cultural values, or what is generally termed the Judeo-Christian traditions. This is again true only in a very restricted sense. In the pluralistic regions of the Outer Circle, English is used as an important tool to impart *local* traditions and cultural values. A significant number of linguistic innovations in English reflect such local culture, and sociopolitical contexts (for references, see Kachru 1986b).

Why is English used for such local integrative roles? Several reasons come to mind, eg., the neutrality of English in relation to competing local and national languages and the pan-national uses of English in multilingual contexts. In many regions of the Outer Circle, English is the only language which cuts across languages and national boundaries. And in its localized variety, English is the language of higher education, pan-regional administration, national and international business, a link language for the defense network, the media, and a language for literary creativity.

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[2] Countries such as South Africa and Jamaica are difficult to place within the circles. In terms of the English-using populations and the functions of English, their situation is rather complex.

Fallacy 3: That the goal of learning and teaching English is to adopt the native models of English (eg., the Received Pronunciation, or General American; see, e.g., Quirk 1988). This claim has no empirical validity. The Inner Circle is a "model provider" in a very marginal sense. In the Outer Circle, the local model has been institutionalized, and the educated varieties of such models have always been used in the classroom, in various interactional contexts by the administrators, politicians, educators, and by the legal experts. True, there is schizophrenia about the perceived model and actual linguistic behavior, but this is an issue of linguistic attitude. The concept "native speaker" is not always a valid yardstick for the global uses of English (Christopherson 1988 and Kachru 1988a and 1988b).

Fallacy 4: That the international non-native varieties of English are essentially "interlanguages" striving to achieve "native-like" character. This hypothesis has several limitations as has been shown, for example, by Sridhar and Sridhar (1986) and Nelson (1988). Whatever the validity of this hypothesis in second language acquisition in general, its application to the institutionalized varieties of English in the Outer Circle needs reevaluation.

Fallacy 5: That the native speakers of English as teachers, academic administrators, and material developers provide a serious input in the global teaching of English, in policy formation, and in determining the channels for the spread of the language. In reality, the native speakers have an insignificant role in the global spread and teaching of English.

Fallacy 6: That the diversity and variation in English is necessarily an indicator of linguistic decay. That restricting the decay is the responsibility of the native scholars of English and ESL programs. This fallacy has resulted in the position that "deviation" at any level from the native norm is an "error." This view ignores the functional appropriateness of language in sociolinguistic contexts distinctly different from the Inner Circle.

The list does not end here. These six fallacies are just illustrative. For further discussion on theoretical, methodological, formal, functional, and attitudinal fallacies, see Kachru, 1987a.

English in the Real World

In the Outer Circle the varieties of English have their own local histories, literary traditions, pragmatic contexts, and communicative norms. Functionally, these varieties are first *African*, *South Asian*, and *Southeast Asian*, and only in a secondary sense are they international. And in their international functions these varieties are used only by a small segment of the total English-using populations.

The multiple identities of English have given a new direction to the English language and literature. This has happened in many important and lasting ways. For example, in the expansion of the canon. The reference points, and underlying cultural and literary assumptions are no more exclusively Judeo-

Christian. There is a larger set of reference points, historical, cultural, mythological, and literary. And these come from diverse cultures of, for example, South Asia, Southeast Asia, and West Africa. It is in this interesting sense that English is an *international* language. These assimilative and creative aspects of English have yet to be fully recognized. In fact, English has become an international language in a much more serious sense than the conventional use of the term "international language" implies (see Kachru 1987b). What way of life does English represent? I do not believe that the profession has in a serious sense attempted to answer this question. It is evident that English does not represent one or two ways of life, but multiple ways of life. And therein lies its strength. The evidence of this is in the way English is used in the "new literatures", in English newspapers and in function-specific varieties of English (ESP's) developed in India, Nigeria, Singapore, and the Philippines, to give just four examples (see Kachru 1986c).

Why Teach World Englishes?

The reasons for teaching world Englishes are abundant. The changing sociolinguistic profile of English has been responsible for slaughtering many sacred linuistic cows (see Kachru 1988a and 1988b). The process of the slaughter and its implications deserve the serious attention of scholars, particularly in ESL-related fields.

But there is more to it. The global uses of English, in linguistically, culturally, and economically diverse contexts, has provided refreshing new data and new insights in several interdisciplinary areas of research including the following:
1. Language acquisition (e.g., Sridhar and Sridhar 1986); 2. Cross-cultural discourse (e.g., Smith ed. 1981 and 1987; Kachru 1981 and 1982 ed.; Y. Kachru 1985 and 1987); 3. Bilingual's creativity (Kachru 1983a); 4. Language contact and convergence (for references see Kachru 1986b); 5. Language attitudes (e.g., see Smith ed. 1983); and 6. Lexicography (e.g., Kachru 1983b).

What we need to do is to look at the facts squarely in the face. One must address questions which will contribute toward understanding the sociolinguistic and other factors in a global context, questions such as the following: 1. What are the underlying dynamic forces which characterize the spread of English? 2. What are the functional domains assigned to English in various multilingual and multicultural societies, and their implications for the language? 3. What are the processes and implications of the nativization of English, and Englishization of local languages? 4. What are the contexts in which English is taught and what type of personnel are staffing ESL/EFL programs? 5. What are the attitudes of learners, teachers, and users of English toward their own and other varieties and subvarieties (eg., Nigerian Pidgin, basilect, mixed varieties)? 6. What role does the Inner Circle play in the present spread of English and in its codification? and 7. What are the ways in which the non-native literatures in English (eg., African, Asian) can be used as a resource for cross-cultural awareness and for understanding linguistic creativity and innovations (Kachru 1986d and Thumboo 1988)?

World Englishes in the Classroom

Now we come to the vital question: How can a teacher initiate a paradigm shift—attitudinally and methodologically—in the classroom? There is, of course, no unique answer to the question since much depends on the level of the class and the specific goals for teaching. The following points deserve attention, particularly for training professionals and for teaching advanced students:

1. *Sociolinguistic profile*: An overview of English in its world context with discussion of selected major varieties, their users and uses. A clear distinction to be made between the use of English in a monolingual society, as opposed to a multilingual society; and its implications (e.g., mixing, switching).

2. *Variety exposure*: An exposition of the repertoire of major varieties of English, native and non-native: Their uses and users, specific texts related to various interactional contexts, shared and non-shared features at different linguistic levels.

3. *Attitudinal neutrality*: For teaching purposes, one might focus on one specific variety, and, at the same time emphasize awareness and functional validity of other varieties.

4. *Range of uses*: The functional appropriateness of the lectal range of varieties within a specific variety (e.g., from educated varieties to the pidgins and basilects).

5. *Contrastive pragmatics*: The relationships of discoursal and stylistic innovations and relationships to the local conventions of culture (e.g., strategies used for persuasion, phatic communion, apologies, condolences, and regrets).

6. *Multidimensionality of functions*: The linguistic implications of the functional range, as in, for example, the media, in literary creativity, in administration, in the legal system.

Resources for Teaching World Englishes

There still are limited resources for teaching world Englishes. A serious impetus for providing a research direction in areas related to world Englishes came in the 1970's. It was in 1978 that two conferences were independently organized on English across-cultures: one at the East-West Center, Honolulu, Hawaii, and the other at the University of Illinois at Urbana. These conferences proved seminal and provided a cross-cultural perspective about the dimensions of English. The Honolulu conference resulted in Smith ed.1981 and the Urbana conference in Kachru ed. 1982.

The following is a partial list of materials for background reading:

1. *Bibliographies*: Viereck, Schneider and Gorlach 1984.

2. *General Surveys*: Bailey and Gorlach eds.1982; Fishman et al. 1977; Greenbaum ed.1985; Kachru ed.1982 and 1986a; Lowenberg ed.1988; McCrum et al. 1987; Noss ed. 1983; Platt et al. 1984; Pride ed. 1982; Quirk and Widdowson eds. 1985; Smith ed. 1981 and 1983.

3. *Issue-Oriented Studies*:
    a. *Models* (selected chapters and relevant references): Kachru ed1982 and 1986a.
    b. *Intelligibility*: Kachru ed. 1982 (chapter 4); Smith and Nelson 1985; Smith ed. 1981.
    c. *Sociolinguistic Issues*: Kachru 1986b and 1988; Quirk 1988; K. Sridhar 1986.

4. *Literature in English*: Kachru ed. 1982 (chapters 18, 19, and 20 for references) and 1986d; King 1979; Narasimhaiah ed.1978; Taiwo 1976; Thumboo 1988.

5. *Discourse Strategies and Nativization*: Smith ed. 1981 and 1987; Kachru 1983a; see also relevant chapters in *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics* (Cambridge University Press)1982.

6. *Journals*: There are now several journals specifically devoted to English in the world contexts: *English World-Wide: A Journal of Varieties of English* (1980-); *World Englishes: Journal of English as an International and Intranational Language* (1985-); and *English Today* (1985-).

Conclusion

The teaching of world Englishes is not only academically challenging, but also opens new refreshing avenues for cross-cultural theoretical and applied research. What is needed is a shift of two types: A paradigm shift in research and teaching, and an understanding of the sociolinguistic reality of the uses and users of English. We must also cease to view English within the framework appropriate to monolingual societies. We must recognize the linguistic, cultural, and pragmatic implications of various types of pluralism: That pluralism has now become an integral part of the English language and literatures written in English in various parts of the non-Western world. The traditional presuppositions and ethnocentric approaches need reevaluation. In the international contexts, English represents a repertoire of cultures, not a monolithic culture. The changed sociolinguistic profile of English is naturally, difficult to recognize. And there is a reason for it: The traditional paradigm based on the fallacies discussed above, however undesirable it is, continues to have a grip on the profession. What makes things more complex is that there are active interest groups which want to maintain the status quo. Let us hope that such attitudes can not continue for too long and that eventually the sociolinguistic reality and pragmatism will prevail.

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World Englishes (WE) is devoted to the study of global varieties of English in their distinctive cultural and sociolinguistic contexts. The journal recognizes that English belongs to all who use it and is unique in that it provides an international outlook on three areas of research:
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What English for the Japanese?

Emiko Yukawa

The stress on studying English has been growing steadily in Japan. Owing to improvement in teaching techniques and the increasing opportunities to visit English-speaking countries, many Japanese have successfully gained a good command of English, not only in its written form but in speaking. This paper addresses the issue of what is desirable English as the goal of language learning in Japan.

There seem to be two main problems in how the Japanese learn English which prevent them from becoming competent communicators. One of these problems is related to the sample models that have been used in the Japanese English classrooms.

Historically speaking, Japanese learners of English have been using two English varieties as models in their studies: Standard British English (or BBC English) before World War II, and Standard American English after that. The term "variety" is used here to denote all the various Englishes, both in native English-speaking countries and internationally. The term "dialect" has been avoided because it sometimes has a connotation of incorrectness or deviance. As well, there is no distinct line between a language and a dialect.

It seems that there is still a strong feeling among Japanese learners of English that they have to sound exactly like Americans or British people to have themselves recognized as good speakers of English. Many of them, especially intermediate or advanced learners, even think that acquiring entire communication patterns, mannerisms, and ways of thinking of the people of either nationality is necessary to be a good speaker of English. The writer of the following essay, a Japanese who studied English in California and was then in an intensive pre-university program in Hawaii, is a good example of such learners:

> I just don't know what to do right now. I might have been wrong since I began to learn English.... When I got to California, I started imitating Americans and picked words that I heard. So my English became just like Americans.... I got California English including intonation, pronunciation, the way they act, which are not mine. I have to have my own English, be myself when I speak English...I talked to the girls in my dormitory very seriously. They said they talked about me so badly whenever I spoke English, it sounded funny, phony, not natural...whatever to them. (Preston 1981:105)

The writer of this article was struggling with the negative reactions of her American friends to the Americanness of her English and the way she spoke it. Although she is an extreme case, there are many Japanese who view either American or British English as the only desirable goal and try to approximate their English and communication patterns to one of these two peoples.

The other problem of Japanese learners of English frequently accompanies the one we have just seen. It is what I call "perfectionism." Even those who are obviously advanced learners still think that they speak "poor English." No matter how effectively they can communicate, they think their English is not good because it has a strong non-native accent, or they failed to use idiomatic expressions that a native speaker would have used at a certain moment of the conversation; i.e., because their English is not perfectly native-like.

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A famous newscaster, Mr. Isomura of NHK does not seem to be free from such perfectionism, at least in the excerpt below. This is taken from a televised interview with Prime Minister Thatcher (NHK 1983:8):

> *Mr. Isomura* (right after thanking Mrs. Thatcher for being interviewed): However, there is a famous saying on Japanese by an eminent Japanologist, former United States Ambassador to Japan, Professor Reischauer. He wrote that he could recall only two or three Japanese leaders with whom he could talk easily in English, more than the weather and golf scores. What is your comment on this remark?
> *Mrs. Thatcher* (not hiding her bewilderment at this unexpected and rather out-of-place question): I have not found that at all....
> *Mr. Isomura* (not being satisfied with her denial, continues): Well, thank you very much. Our English is not perfect....
> *Mrs. Thatcher*: Mine isn't either.
> *Mr. Isomura*: So please forgive us at the outset. And turning to more serious questions....

Mr. Isomura is noted to be one of the best speakers of English among Japanese journalists. Yet, he is apologizing for not being able to speak "perfect" English.

This obsession with "perfect" English can be observed among many teachers of English, too. I have heard many Japanese teachers apologize for their "poor English" and then state their opinions fluently and convincingly. Generally speaking, this "perfectionism" shuts up intermediate learners because of the fear of making mistakes and even advanced learners think negatively about their English. In this way the "perfectionism" in Japan is not productive and can even be said to be harmful.

Japanese Attitudes towards Language Learning

I suspect that the worship of American and British English (hereafter referred to as A/B English) and perfectionism are the results of the mostly monolingual history of Japan. Japan was always a monolingual country except during the Nara and Heian periods, when educated people spoke in Chinese for official purposes. In other words, Japanese almost never used foreign languages as a means of daily communication. However, multilingualism is the norm in the world today (see Mclaughlin 1985 for a report on multilingualism in the world). People in many multilingual countries use one language for a specific purpose (e.g., schooling) and another for a different function (e.g., communication with the elderly in the community) and so on. Japanese people, however, have rarely used foreign languages in this way.

The majority of Japanese study English as an academic subject, not as a means of communication. Some even consider studying spoken English as an "in" passtime or as a status symbol (see Lummis1977 for a detailed discussion). This is why many Japanese speakers of English do not pay due attention to whether their English serves a particular communicative purpose or not. Rather, they seem to be obsessed with how good their English is, i.e., how native-like their pronunciation, grammar, and choice of words are.

Englishes in the World

Another reason why the Japanese suffer from the two aforementioned maladies seems to be a lack of awareness of the state of the Englishes spoken in the world. If you are learning a language which is spoken intranationally only in one country and if you use the language solely with the native speakers in this country (e.g., learning Thai and using it in Thailand to communicate with Thai people), being able to speak the language like its native speakers can be a handy and favorably accepted skill. But in the case of English, the issue is not so simple, because English has many publically acknowledged varieties in the world and each variety is spoken by people who have their own culture and communication patterns. In other words, every such national speaks his or her own "English," which is in many ways different from other varieties of English spoken in other parts of the world. Therefore, it is wrong to assume that English is the mother tongue of only British and American people and that their varieties of English are all that matters in our study of English.

A brief look at how many people speak these "Englishes" in the world and how different these Englishes are from one another is in order. It is said that there are about 750 million proficient English speakers in the world (McCrum et al. 1987). This figure includes about 350 million people who speak English as a native language, such as the ones in the U.S., U.K., Australia, New Zealand, and Canada. The other 400 million people live in those countries in which English is used as one of their national languages and is used not only internationally but intranationally as well. India, Nigeria, Kenya, South Africa, the Philippines, Ghana, Pakistan, Bangladesh, and Sri Lanka are examples. These countries had been colonized either by Great Britain or the United States, and after the colonizer's departure, they continued to use English as one of their languages. English became paramount among other native languages spoken in such countries because it was more or less "neutral" and was considered suitable for the integrity of the nation. As English was used more and more for the purpose of intranational communication, it started to incorporate linguistic and social aspects indigenous to the country—i.e., "nativization" of English. In addition, there are a great many speakers of English as a foreign language, including the Japanese. These people do not use English within their own countries, but use it extensively for international communication. Thus, we cannot even say precisely how many people communicate in English.

Let us turn now to the differences between various English varieties. American English, for example, has developed its own characteristics over three hundred years. It is different from British English in phonology, spelling, vocabulary, syntax, and pragmatics. Since language always changes with time, it is natural for any nation where English is spoken to develop its own unique linguistic features. For instance, Indian English has lexical items unique to it—e.g., "dining-leaf" (usually a banana leaf used as a plate especially in the southern part of the country), and "bride price" (the money a girl's family has to give to the bridegroom's family at the time of her marriage). Syntactically, Indian English is characterized among other things by its unique use of articles and the "be + ing" construction (I am hearing the music).

It should be clear, then, that there is no such thing as *the* correct model for all the English speakers in the world. The Japanese, who interact in English with many Asians, Africans, Europeans, South Americans, etc., should be prepared to comprehend these various Englishes and communicate successfully with their speakers.

American/British English as a Sample Model, Not as a Goal

It seems that an important distinction is missing in English education in Japan. It is the distinction between an English variety uses as a sample model and an English model used as a learner goal. Theoretically, our instructional model can be any independent English variety. The choice depends on which variety the learner needs to become most familiar with. Practically, however, the use of A/B English as our instructional model will continue in Japan, given our close relationship with these two countries and the abundant instructional materials and number of "native speaker" teachers currently available in this country. In addition, since Japan has not developed any publically acknowledged variety of English due to the lack of intensive use of the language, we have no stabilized variety of English of our own to be used as a model. This makes it necessary for us to borrow some English variety from outside as a sample model in English instruction, and it might as well be A/B English.

The learner goal for the Japanese, however, does not have to be the same as the sample model. In the first place, it seems rather unrealistic to set our goal on matching a native-speaking American's linguistic and sociolinguistic abilities. There are two reasons why. First, many researchers of language acquisition (e.g., Oyama1976, Ramsay and Wright 1974) claim that accent free acquisition of phonology is not possible for the learners of a second language who start it after a certain age. Some researchers say this age is as early as six, and nobody says it is later than puberty. Although not as much research has been done in other areas, some authors say the critical age for native-like mastery exists in syntax, semantics, and pragmatics as well (e.g., Long 1988). If this is true, it would be unrealistic, if not entirely impossible, for most of us who start learning English at the age of 12 or 13 to aim for a native-like attainment of a foreign language.

Secondly, even if near native mastery of syntax, vocabulary, and pronunciation is possible, other elements involved in human communication cannot be easily transferred. For example, nonverbal behavior, such as gestures, eye contact, distancing, touching, and so on varies from culture to culture. It is reported that what is convincing and sensible rhetoric in one culture is not at all in another (see Kaplan1966 for a discussion of four different rhetorical patterns in written language, and Gumperz1982 for different rhetorical practices in Indian and Black English as spoken languages). Many formulaic expressions for complimenting, apologizing, showing modesty, small talk, and so on are strongly tied to the politeness strategies which are commonly accepted and encouraged in specific cultures. Again, it is unrealistic for any individual who has his or her own cultural background to aim to speak exactly like an American or a British person.

What, then, should our goal as learners of English be? It seems that proficiency in English, which enables us to obtain our intended communicative goals in various interpersonal tasks—i.e., communicability in international communication—should be our ultimate goal. Such a proficiency, aimed at by a Japanese learner of English (as a learner goal), is different from the proficiency of a native speaking American (sample model) in that the former contains a degree of "Japaneseness" which is inevitable and permissible. Such "Japaneseness" will show itself in phonology, choice of words, and many other linguistic and sociolinguistic aspects.

In order to see how far we are in relation to this learner goal, we should abandon our old criterion, i.e., how close one's English is (approximity) to a native speaker model. Our concern should be our ability to use English as a means of communication. How effectively we can make ourselves understood and how successful we are in attaining the desired result in interactions is more important than how "good" our English is. Our purpose in communicating can be as easy as going to a souvenir shopping on a trip abroad. Or it can be more demanding—e.g., to present our ideas on a controversial issue in an academic conference. In this case a higher level of skill, such as describing our point of view precisely, convincing people eloquently, and defending our ideas from others' attacks, etc., will be needed. Whatever the purpose and nature of our interactions, we should try to be ourselves. There is nothing wrong with using Japanese gestures, rhetoric, and politeness strategies, as far as they do not cause misunderstanding. We should not be afraid of non-native linguistic features (e.g., accent) which have remained after painstaking efforts in studying English, as long as these features do not give rise to communication breakdowns. It is high time that Japanese learners of English stopped finding fault with their own (and with each other's) English and viewing it as "imperfect."

To attain this goal—communicability in international communication—it is necessary, first of all, to stop making futile and unrewarding efforts to eliminate Japaneseness completely from our use of English, and secondly, to allocate more time and energy in getting accustomed to different varieties of English and various discourse patterns of the people in the world. Conscious training is necessary to learn intercultural communication skills in English. This has been a totally neglected area in our English education, but given the status of English today and the foreseeable closer relationship among nations of the world, the importance of developing intercultural skills cannot be overly stressed.

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Why Can't Taro and Hanako Learn English?

Keiko Samimy

Currently, everybody seems to be talking about Japan in one form or another. On television, the relentless intrusion of the Japanese on the American business world has been repeatedly criticized. Meanwhile, in recent months at least five major American journals have covered stories about Japanese education. These articles point out the strengths and the weaknesses of Japanese education, and suggest how the American educational system might learn from it.

As the Japanese make inroads into American markets, Japanese communities grow proportionately. This growth challenges local school districts to successfully accommodate Japanese children in American schools. And it is a headache for many American teachers to have in their classrooms Japanese children who have no knowledge of English while American children demand attention and care from them at the same time. An increasing number of school districts have developed ESL programs to help these children learn English. Many of the ESL programs also provide service in areas such as cross-cultural education and counseling and act as a liaison between the American school teachers and the Japanese parents.

This paper was written and based on my experience teaching ESL to a group of Japanese children, grades six through twelve, who temporarily reside in the United States due to their fathers' business commitments. Even though I am Japanese myself, I was struck by the complexity of the social and psychological environment in which these students live and what a powerful impact it has on their emotional well-being as well as on the process of their acquiring English.

I hope that this paper will provide some insights for ESL and classroom teachers with regard to the Japanese children who are temporarily residing in America, so that they will be better prepared to relate to these students. I would also like to add that the Japanese children described here are only a small sample and by no means typify all the Japanese children living in the United States.

Some Common Factors Affecting the Process of Learning English for Japanese Children

1. *Transiency: "We don't know when we will go back to Japan."*

It is very difficult to seriously commit oneself to a goal without knowing the time constraints one is operating under. Living in a totally different culture under such uncertainty makes the acculturation process extremely difficult regardless of one's age.

Many Japanese children in our ESL programs live in that transient state. Although it is an unspoken expectation that the families will stay in the U.S. for three to five years, there are many cases where families have returned much sooner or stayed longer than expected. As a result, an unsettled feeling permeates the environment of Japanese children overseas, even in the classroom. Not only are there children who make no serious effort to acclimatize themselves to their American

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environment, but there are also some children who do not perceive American schools as being quite as real as Japanese schools and do not work very hard. Consequently, classroom teachers often perceive these children as "lazy" or as "not trying hard enough." Of course, there are some children who try to make the best of the given circumstances; however, they cannot help but wonder what will happen to them when they return to Japan.

2. *American schools and Japanese schools: "We don't have enough time to play."*

Over 95% of the Japanese children in our school system attend a Japanese Saturday school from 9:00 am to 2:30 pm every Saturday in order to keep up with their Japanese studies. While middle school children study mathematics, Japanese, and social studies, high school students concentrate on math and Japanese.

In order to cope with homework from the American schools, over 80% of middle school children and over 90% of high school children have American tutors who come to their homes after school two or three times a week. Especially for high school students, in addition to the help they receive in ESL classes, a tutor is a must in order to keep up with classes and pass with decent grades. The pressure is tremendous. Keeping up in American schools is challenging enough but it is doubly challenging, intellectually, psychologically, and physically, to do well in two different school systems and in in two different languages at the same time. These children may appear to be anti-social or passive about engaging themselves in extra-curricular activities after school, but the truth of the matter is, they just do not have time left for any additional activities.

3. *Psychological framework: "We didn't choose to come here."*

Living in a foreign country challenges one's self-esteem, especially if one is expected to do well but is not sufficiently equipped with the necessary language skills. Often, one consoles oneself by saying, "I have chosen this, so I've got to try a little harder." Unfortunately, however, some of the Japanese children do not have the same attitude. Especially defensive children might say, "I didn't choose to come here. Things would have been much better in Japan. And I left many friends there." This initial non-commitment is very difficult to handle, both for parents and for ESL teachers. The parents feel guilty about uprooting the children from their familiar environment and this sense of guilt may be intensified when they see their children painfully struggling but still getting poor grades at school.

For ESL teachers, the non-commital attitude is a big obstacle to overcome. The children may express their resentment against ESL teachers because they symbolize American culture and language. And the children may perceive the teachers as the cause of all the frustration and confusion they are experiencing. Statements such as "No Japanese in ESL class! Speak in English! Taro, why don't you speak English?" often create a thicker wall between students and teachers.

4. *The strong Japanese need to belong—identity conflict*

Traditionally, there is a strong concern for belonging among Japanese. In addition, "belongingness is further demonstrated by the desire for pure and unambiguous belonging" (Lebra 1976). Japanese who do not behave like Japanese, therefore, are often ridiculed because of an ambiguity of identity in terms of their belonging. There are many incidents reported about Japanese children who have returned from abroad and found it extremely hard to readjust to their own country (Nakatsu

1979, Farkas and Kohno 1987). Japanese children living in the United States do not seem to be exempt from the desire to be accepted by their peers as well as the accompanying anxiety about being left out. In fact, they seem to be under more intense pressure "not to lose" their Japanese identity during their stay in America. Anyone who breaks the group norms by behaving or speaking like an "American" is often left out of the Japanese group. Speaking English like a native speaker is especially threatening to the in-group and is often interpreted as being disloyal. "Listeners—including ourselves—from our own in-groups, when they hear us go beyond the gross and digital kind of accuracy, may feel a threat at the level of identity. To do so would be 'integrative' toward a dangerous out-group and ipso facto 'dis-integrative' toward the in-group" (Stevick 1976:53).

Smith also confirms the relationship between identity and learning: "Our club memberships are our identity. The original basis for membership in any club, remember, is: 'You're one of us.' ...If we see ourselves as members of a club, then we can't help learning to be like members of the club. *But if we regard ourselves as outside a club, then our brains will resist any learning that might falsely identify us as club members*" (1986, emphasis is mine). He goes on to cite an intriguing phenomenon that occurs when English-speaking children learn French by "total immersion" in Canadian schools. During the first three years, these children reach the point where their French is indistinguishable from native French-speaking children. But then these children start speaking French with an English accent with errors which non-native speakers of French typically make. Smith concludes by saying, "...all these children have made decisions about the clubs they belong to. *When they decide they are not a particular kind of person, they learn not to be like that kind of person*" (1986, emphasis is mine).

Similarly, some Japanese children may choose to belong to the "Japanese-speaking club" rather than the "English-speaking club."

5. *Influence of parents' attitudes on children's English acquisition process*

Gardner talks about two different parental roles. He states that active parents assume an active role in promoting their child's language learning. They monitor the child's progress and give positive feedback. They also believe in active involvement in community activities and in learning about the culture and language. Passive parents, on the other hand, express the desire that their children learn the language, insist that they study, and perhaps even give rewards for good grades. However, at the same time, they may make no effort to learn the language themselves, openly express negative opinions about the speakers of the target language, and often reveal a desire to return to their homeland where things would be better (Gardner et al. 1974).

The dedication of Japanese mothers to theirs children's education is becoming common knowledge all over the world. The Japanese term, "kyooiku mama" (education mother), epitomizes the total responsibility and effort Japanese mothers demonstrate until their children successfully get through the notorious examination hell. Japanese mothers in America are no exception. They are extremely anxious and concerned with their children's education. Many read monthly magazines, such as *Japan Overseas Educational Services*, to find out the criteria of Japanese universities for admitting "returnees." The "kyooiku mamas'" attitude, however, tends not only to over-emphasize the importance of Japanese education, but also narrows their children's opportunities to learn about

American culture and the English language itself.

Japanese Children's Attitudes and Motivation in Learning English

The research of Lambert and Gardner on the influence of attitude and motivation on second language acquisition is well known. They state that there are two kinds of motivation—an integrative orientation and an instrumental orientation. An integratively motivated learner is interested in learning the second language in order to meet and communicate with people who speak the target language. An instrumentally motivated learner, on the other hand, is not particularly interested in the people of the target language, but wants to learn the language for more utilitarian purposes, so that s/he may find a better job, for example.

How do Japanese children actually perceive the study of English? Do they think that English is necessary just to pass courses or do they think that English is an important tool in making American friends? Are there differences in attitudes about learning English between middle school ESL students and high school ESL students? If there are differences, how do they affect the students' progress in learning English?

A Pilot Study

Based on my clinical observations and research findings on second language acquisition, a pilot study was conducted to ascertain Japanese children's attitudes and motivation in learning English. The results of this study and the conclusions which can be drawn from them are as follows:

1. *Correlation between English proficiency and motivation*

Correlations were computed among middle school ESL students (n=20) and high school ESL students (n=12) to ascertain the relationship between motivational orientations and language achievement. Among the middle school students, there was a relatively high correlation between integrative motivation and the LAS (Language Assessment Scale) scores. Instrumental motivation, however, did not significantly correlate with these scores. Among high school students, there was a negative correlation between integrative motivation and the LAS scores. And there was little correlation between instrumental motivation and the scores.

In other words, with the middle school students, the more integratively oriented they are, the higher they score in language proficiency. On the other hand, integratively oriented high school students tend to score lower in language proficiency. Both groups showed little relationship between instrumental orientation and the test scores. The negative correlation between integrative motivation and the LAS scores among high school students is intriguing. No plausible explanation can be found at this point, except that the result may have been caused by the small sample size.

2. *Learners' perceptions: What is the most important English skill?*

70% of the middle school students indicated speaking was the most important skill, while only 30% of high school students considered it the most important. Among high school students, 50% chose grammar, while merely 0.15% of the middle school students considered grammar as the most important skill.

These results might be attributed to the emphasis on different academic performance in middle school and high school. The group activities and hands-on projects which are emphasized in middle school necessitate communicative competence. In high school, however, the classes are more lecture oriented and this does not require the students to interact with one another. Another plausible explanation is that high school students who intend to enroll in a Japanese university are well aware that knowledge of English grammar rather than communicative competence will be tested during university entrance examinations.

3. *How many American friends do you have?*

The number of American friends that Japanese ESL students have seems to differ considerably between middle school and high school students. 84% of the middle school students in this study said that they had more than ten American friends, compared with only 0.3% of the high school students. It is also worth noting that 25% of the high school students felt that they had less than three American friends, while only 0.05% of the middle school students felt this way.

Age difference here is probably one of the main factors. In other words, middle school children are less inhibited about trying out their limited English to make American friends, whereas high school students are far more self-conscious about their English and their Japanese identity. In addition, high school students are under more pressure academically to maintain good grades. This does not leave them much free time to get involved in extra-curricular activities where they can meet American students, even if they wanted to.

Summary

There is a stereotypical image of Japanese children as being smart. In comparison with their American classmates, they usually excel in math. Learning English, on the other hand, does not seem to come so easily. The difficulty appears to stem not only from the obvious linguistic differences between English and Japanese, but also from socio-cultural pressures which the Japanese children are under. Japanese socio-cultural factors, such as the strong need to belong and intolerance towards ambiguous identity, greatly affect children's progress in learning English. The results of the pilot study indicate that middle school children are more integratively oriented in learning English than high school students. Consequently, middle school children perceive English as a tool to make American friends, while high school students consider it as one of their subjects to be studied.

It is worth noting, however, that even among those younger children who learned to assimilate themselves into American culture and English successfully, once they return to Japan, they tend to "deny" their experiences abroad. According to a study by Kono, 71.4% of the returnees responded that they did not want to apply what they had learned from living abroad in Japan, and only 51.4% answered that they would like to utilize their knowledge of English. The statistics are rather depressing. Based on the study, Kono concluded that this response is due to the returnees' desperate need to re-adjust themselves to Japanese society.

Seen in this way, then, teaching English to Japanese children cannot be viewed as simply imparting a knowledge of English. Without an understanding of the complexity of the social and psychological environment in which these children live, our efforts and energy will be wasted. Although ESL teachers may not be able to control Japanese socio-cultural factors, their efforts to understand them better will definitely be a positive step in the right direction.

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The Placement Test: A Useful or Harmful Tool?

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Malinee Chandavimol

According to Rebecca M. Valette (1977), the primary objective of a proficiency test is to determine whether or not the student has mastered certain specific skills and content that are deemed to be prerequisites for a particular job or course of study. Of all the various types of proficiency tests, the placement test is perhaps the most widely used. Tests of this nature are widely used at the college and university level, where the necessity arises to assign large groups of incoming students to language classes of varying levels of difficulty—from intermediate through upper-intermediate to advanced.

The placement test serves an additional purpose, which is of great benefit to both the educational institution and the student in that it helps from the outset to determine the student's needs, and thus provides a greater degree of flexibility in catering to those needs. This eliminates educational redundancy.

In addition, the placement test can be used as a diagnostic test, whereby weaknesses in student performance are identified and subsequently remedied, thus ensuring maximum achievement of student objectives. Consequently, a well-designed placement test enables instructors to better assess the needs of the students and implement the appropriate methodology and teaching materials with greater effectiveness and, if necessary, revise materials or make use of supplements.

Important Issues for Consideration during the Planning Stage

Since objectives will be different from institution to institution, to ensure maximum effectiveness the placement test should be constructed by the school or college itself. The requisite level of preparation should be determined for each course and the test itself should be especially designed to measure the degree of knowledge, as well as the specific skills, required for success. Commercially prepared tests may also be used, although these may prove to be problematic and far less satisfactory, as great care must then be taken to interpret the scores fairly in light of the school's course requirements. On the whole, it would seem that a placement test tailor-made by a particular educational institution, with specific parameters to meet objectives, is more desirable.

A good example of the latter type is provided by Graham Low (1986) of the University of York who has developed a placement test specially designed for students about to enter a post-graduate course of study. In his paper on this subject, he describes the primary function of his particular test as one of placing students into groups or "streams" for an intensive language course they are about to undertake. Another example of an appropriate placement test designed by a particular institution is that used at the Language Institute at the Department of Technical and Economic Cooperation (DTEC), located in Bangkok. Its primary goal is to determine if a candidate is sufficiently skilled in English, either to meet the linguistic demands of a course of training abroad or to fulfill certain on-the-job requirements at his/her particular place of employment in Thailand. This test is also used as a placement test for DTEC's own students, as well as an end-of-course achievement test.

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Two other major factors fundamental to the success of any placement test are design and administration. In designing or writing a test, it is essential that the writer have an expert knowledge of the domains and issues relating to language assessment, particularly an understanding of the relationship of differing linguistic dimensions of proficiency to overall competency.

Clearly, great care must be taken in terms of content. To quote Finocchiaro and Sako (1983), "The content will or should reflect the purpose for which the test has been prepared." That is, in order to place a student at the appropriate level, accurate assessment is essential. The consequences of misclassification due to an inadequate and inappropriate test may include improper placement, insufficient instructors, and as a result, a lower standard of academic achievement. An example of a cause of misclassification is the predetermined cut-off point in a test. The inherent danger in the use of cut-off points is that they are rarely accurate and easily lead to a misinterpretation of the test results.

In terms of administration, according to Terry Phillips (1987), "Successful placement depends as much, if not more, on skilled administrators than on the testing instrument itself." As we have already observed, the testing instrument itself must be easy to administer to the examinees—a crucial factor, especially when the test is to be used as a screening or placement instrument for a large number of students. Simply put, a test's efficiency, or lack of it, greatly depends on administrability, which depends, in turn, on a number of factors. For example, the directions must be presented in simple, uncomplicated, and unequivocal language that all examinees can understand.

Administrative constraints can have a major impact on testing efficiency. This is especially true as these constraints may also affect the content of the test itself, as well as "scorability" as defined by Finocchiaro and Sako (1983). For example, lack of sufficient staff may make it difficult to include an extensive cloze section in the test. Given the number of choices and the element of subjectivity involved, such a complex test may be difficult for an understaffed institution to grade. Thus, the quality of the assessment directly depends on the time and the human resources an institution can commit to the task of grading and double-checking. The importance of these factors is verified by the evidence that when students are placed successfully, the course tends to function more smoothly and there is, consequently, a lower rate of failure.

Implementation of the Placement Test at Chulalongkorn University

One of the services provided by Chulalongkorn University Language Institute (CULI) is the offering of the Foundation English Course to all first-year students (see appendix). Unfortunately, the results of the course have been less than satisfactory from both the teachers' and students' points of view. The primary cause is that the course has been found to cover too broad a spectrum of subject content, as well as too diverse a range of language skills, and these have been found not to correlate closely enough with the variety of students' English language backgrounds. It was observed, for example, that in spite of studying for eight years before entering the university, a certain percentage of the student body could barely read or write. On the other hand, many of the students had attended one of the many prestigious Catholic schools in Bangkok where English is used as the medium of instruction for most subjects and some had even spent time abroad in an English-speaking country as part of a high school student exchange program.

For the weaker students, the first-year English course seems to represent a Herculean task to which they have to devote an enormous amount of time in their studies, while for the relatively competent, the course means a duplication of effort and a misuse of precious study time which they could devote to their subject area of interest.

Given this situation, CULI decided in 1985 policy to introduce a Placement/Exemption Test designed to be administered to all the incoming students from the 15 faculties throughout the University. The aim was to exempt students who satisfied the criteria needed to pass the first required course—Foundation English I (FE I), and at the same time, to subsequently group the rest of the students in their respective faculties according to their individual ability.

A study was conducted after the first two years of implementation to determine the efficiency of the test. The following findings were indicated:

1. Approximately 350 to 400 students each year met the requirements for exemption from the FE I course. Some of these were then able to take other courses in their specific faculties, whether compulsory or elective, while the rest could choose to progress at their own pace in their course of study. In the first year, we were able to place students from seven faculties as opposed to the 15 intended, and in the second year, we extended the service to 10 fâculties.
2. For both Science and Non-Science students, a statistically significant correlation existed among the following:
    a. a correlation coefficient of .7901 and .7873 between the University Entrance Examination and the Placement/Exemption Test
    b. a correlation coefficient of .7508 between the Placement/Exemption Test and the Foundation English Achievement Test
    c. a correlation of .7719 and .7470 between the University Entrance Examination and the Foundation English Achievement Test

As can be seen from these correlations, success on the Foundation English Achievement test, as well as on the Placement/Exemption Test, can be determined with more than a fair amount of precision by the University Entrance Examination.

3. Using, as a base, the mean score of the University Entrance Examination for Science students, the students from the Faculty of Medicine ranked first, whereas the students from the Faculty of Fine Arts ranked last. However, using the University Entrance Examination for Non-Science students as a base, the students from the Faculty of Arts ranked first while the students from the Faculty of Fine Arts again ranked last.

Of all the students who were exempted from the FE I course and then later enrolled in the FE II course, the Faculty of Medicine ranked first in terms of exemption with 31.37% of the students taking the Placement/Achievement Test being exempted. Faculty of Arts students achieved the second highest exemption rate with 24.34%, whereas the Faculty of Education students ranked last in that a mere .76% of these students received exemptions. It should also be noted that students from both Faculties of Medicine and Arts received top scores in their FE I course.

A Discussion of CULI Placement/Exemption Test

It can be clearly seen that the Placement/Exemption Test as instituted by CULI serves two purposes, both as a proficiency test and as an achievement test. It is designed to fit our own learning situation in Thailand. Since a great number of students need to be screened at one time, the test has to be easy to administer and quick to mark.

There are, of course, a number of drawbacks to the present system. For one thing, our placement test lacks both an oral and aural component and thus contains an imbalance between receptive and productive skills; hence, it is not a totally accurate measure of communicative ability. Nevertheless, it must be pointed out that an oral component would be physically and logistically impossible to measure given the limited resources of the Institute and the numbers of students involved. Simply because a student does well on the written, does not necessarily mean that s/he is sufficiently skilled in terms of oral and aural abilities. In fact, the performance of some of these students when they take the FE II course has proved rather disappointing in some respects. It could be argued that such students would benefit from first semester exposure to a native speaker or to a highly-trained Thai instructor with near native fluency and that it would encourage improvements in terms of pronunciation, intonation, and overall communication skills.

Therefore, at present, the issue is whether or not the exemption should be disbanded. One could argue that it is undesirable to interrupt a student's course of study so abruptly, especially right at the beginning of his university study, and that this might have negative effects on his linguistic development. Another argument is that it is physically and logistically impossible for an institute the size of CULI to offer separate courses for students of varying abilities to accommodate their needs according to their performance on the Placement/Exemption Test. This was the original plan intended by CULI's initiating the policy regarding the Placement/Exemption Test.

On the one hand, we realize that all tests are flawed to a certain extent; otherwise we would be able to claim that we had discovered the perfect testing instrument. As Randall L. Jones (1979) stated: "No test could be considered university valid, regardless of how well it might perform for a given task." On the other hand, the content of the placement test should directly reflect the parameters of the English Program concerned.

It is on this basis that we believe the CULI Placement/Exemption Test provides a relatively reliable tool of assessment and that its essential goals are relatively clear-cut. Although the screening of a large number of students is involved, it has not been necessary to develop a highly refined placement battery. By and large, the test works in that it does reflect the parameters of the English program concerned, namely the course, Foundation English I. It serves its purpose in that it exempts those students whose English-language skills are already sufficiently developed to meet the requirements of Foundation English II, and in that it therefore leaves these students free to pursue studies within their chosen field. Those who are exempted, of course, are phased into the course at the beginning of the second semester, i.e., Foundation English II (FE II). The exemption of competent students leaves the teachers free to concentrate on the language problems confronting those students who must master FE I prior to entering FE II.

In conclusion, we have found that the advantages of our placement test greatly outweigh the disadvantages. The test has eliminated the misuse of study time on the part of the student, and it has improved the overall efficiency of English language instruction at CULI. In addition, the CULI Placement/Exemption Test has proved a useful diagnostic tool in helping to pinpoint areas of weakness among incoming students and has thus been beneficial in shaping and improving the curriculum. On the whole, our experience has been that the CULI Placement/Exemption Test is a valuable educational instrument.

According to a survey conducted among those exempted from the FE I course, 89% were found to be in favour of the CULI Placement/Exemption Test. The actual format is still open to experimentation, perhaps even to the point of using the English component of the University Entrance Examination as a placement indicator, not the correlation coefficient between the University Entrance Examination and the CULI Placement/Exemption Test discussed earlier in this paper. In addition, CULI's plans for the near future include opening a Resource Center for the use of students who are exempted from taking the FE I course, as well as for the use of those students whose level of English is unusually low. The Center will be equipped with materials for all levels, including textbooks, newspapers, audio and video educational equipment, and various other educational aids. And, most importantly, the Center will have a staff of floating instructors to assist students in their independent study of the English Language.

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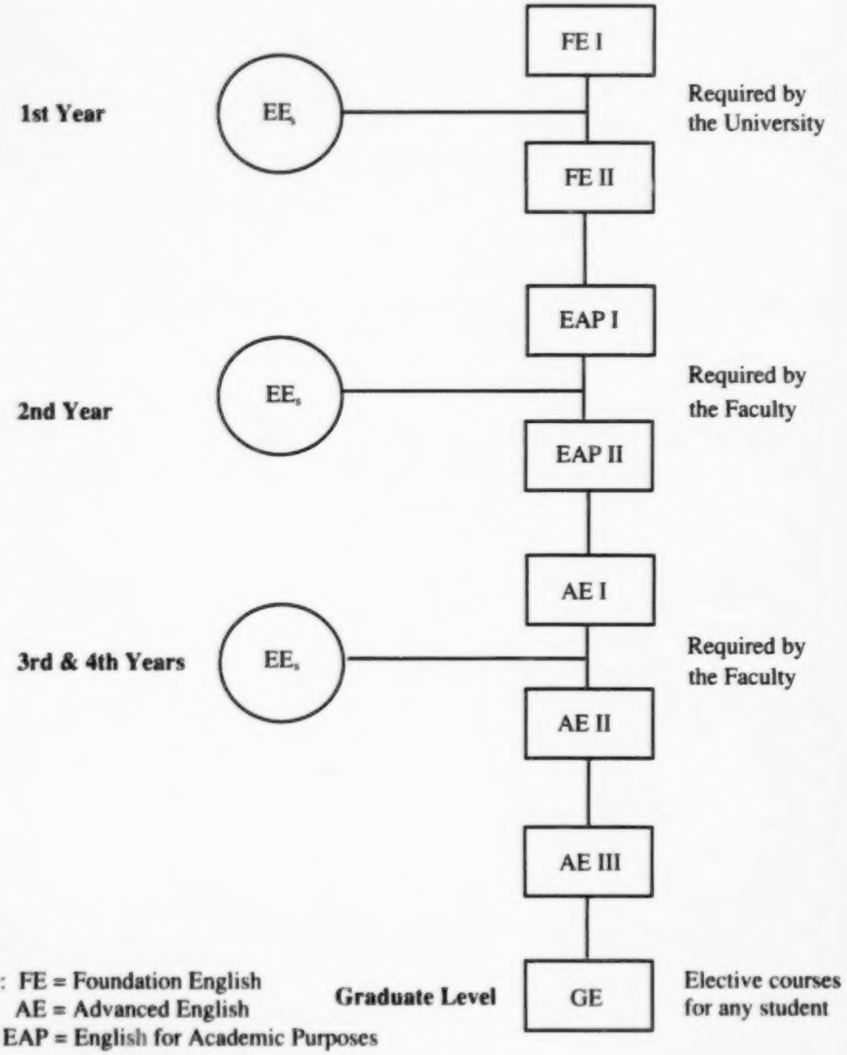
APPENDIX

CULI COURSES


FE I
1st Year
EEs
Required by the University
FE II
EAP I
2nd Year
EEs
Required by the Faculty
EAP II
AE I
3rd & 4th Years
EEs
Required by the Faculty
AE II
AE III
Graduate Level
GE
Elective courses for any student

Note: FE = Foundation English
AE = Advanced English
EAP = English for Academic Purposes
GE = Graduate English
EE = Elective English

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BRIGHT IDEAS

Simulations and the Integrative Approach to Language Teaching

Katsuyoshi Sanematsu

Just as the origin of simulations is as old as that of human thought, so the educational use of simulations may be as old as the history of education. However, simulations have somehow been used very little in the area of language education. They may have been used off and on by individual teachers, but in spite of its great potential, the method has never become a major trend in language teaching.

One reason that has made language teachers shy away from simulations may be the use of role plays, a popular practice method similar to simulations. Methodologically, role plays are not as sophisticated as simulations, but they are simpler in structure and much easier to use in class. At any rate, role plays have been used extensively as standard language practice in the past years.

Simulations are a relatively new method in modern language teaching. Until quite recently most language teachers have been completely out of touch with the method's classroom application. Even now there is very little literature covering this area and in fact very few attempts have been made to bring the method into the classroom with the exception of teaching very advanced students or practical skills, such as travel and business situations.

Simulations: Definition of the Method

A definition conveys expectations which in turn decide the way the method defined will be used. And if the definition is wrong, the use of the method is also likely to be wrong. Used for varied purposes, a simulation may be defined in a number of different ways. In education, a conventional definition of the method may go like this: A simulation is the all-inclusive term which contains those activities which produce artificial environments or which provide artificial experiences for the participants in the activity. But this sort of definition seems too general and even irrelevant to language teaching. A more profitable definition of the method for language teachers may be to use "role play"as a point of reference and expound on it. Although of a different origin, role plays share a lot in common with simulations in form and teaching effects. In fact, a role play is, in a way, a simplified simulation with the aim of working with a particular language function. By the same token, a simulation is probably an extreme form of role play which is expanded and substantiated with the use of real materials. Thus, a simple definition for our purposes may be: A simulation is a reality-oriented role play.

Simulations: Rationale for Use in Language Teaching

Why do we use simulations in teaching a foreign language? Today's language teaching world already abounds with a variety of methodologies which work well in their own ways. Is there anything that simulations do better than other methods? Just what exactly can simulations do?

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1. Reality-based teaching: By design a simulation provides an alternative means to experience reality. Thus, a simulation is unique in that it is meant to be a simplified replica of a real situation. Conversely speaking, what is not realistic is not a simulation. A simulation enables students to practice more or less authentic communication, which is so difficult to experience in the artificial atmosphere of the classroom. Going beyond the classroom, a simulation helps prepare students for what they are about to face "out there" in the real world. It also helps teach embedded cultural elements in a natural context.

2. Overlearning: In language learning, progress is insured only when one keeps trying even after finishing the primary learning task. Language learning is, in the true sense of the word, overlearning. A simulation provides students with a natural opportunity in which constant overlearning is made possible.

3. Integrated teaching: A simulation takes a holistic approach to language teaching. It treats language as a whole in a reality-based situation, not as itemized knowledge presenting discrete language points in isolation. In order to internalize individual points learned, students need a complete communication activity in which they can integrate their previous learning. A simulation naturally serves this purpose.

Simulation Procedures

Stage 1: The teacher first writes a simulation, keeping in mind that he has a certain purpose, such as reviewing particular language points or providing more practical communication practice. A good situation to go with the specific purpose is created and the basic story or scenario is worked out. The simulation can be adjusted in length, complexity, and difficulty, according to the students' level. Next, the language to be used in the simulation is examined and a complete list of materials needed is prepared.

Stage 2: In class, the teacher explains the simulation to the students, describing the situation, the roles to play, and the tasks to be carried out. In order to familiarize the students with the simulation, the teacher may provide some modelling, using handouts, taped conversations, video scenes, etc. Language practice follows. In preparation for the simulation, the students practice the main language points until they feel comfortable with them. In a simulation students often take part in material preparation, such as making name tags, items to sell, presents, pictures, drawings, etc.

Stage 3: Finally, the students do the simulation in class. The teacher sets up the simulation, creating the set, confirming the roles and tasks, etc. The students act out the given scenario on their own and may even switch roles if time permits. During the simulation, the teacher works behind the scenes by providing materials, changing sets, playing music, etc.

Sample Simulations

What sort of simulations are possible? The following are brief descriptions of four simulations which have been written specifically for English teaching:

1. At a Party

Target level: basic to intermediate
Functions: greetings/making introductions/personal information/making invitations/etc.
Structures: simple present/present continuous/would like/would you?/etc.

Realia: large space/tables/music tapes/name tags/role cards/drinks/snacks/etc.

Perhaps nothing is easier to simulate than a party situation. Partying is always fun and exciting. This simulation may be done in a number of different ways. With basic students, the simulation can be a simple mixing activity based on a few mini-dialogs they have memorized. With a more advanced group, the simulation can be expanded to have a specific situation to act out, such as a party held to celebrate someone's birthday, with a host and hostess, etc. Generally speaking, the simulation may best be done in a free-floating situation with the only condition being that the students communicate in the target language. But various roles, such as famous people and foreigners, may also be introduced. More structured practice is possible as well through such tasks as getting certain kinds of information, making invitations, etc. To simulate a party, a large activity space needs to be created in the middle of the classroom. Background music can be played throughout the party to provide atmosphere. Drinks and snacks may also be served at the teacher's discretion.

2. Shopping

Target level: basic to lower intermediate
Functions: getting information/preferences/decisions/etc.
Structures: count and non-count nouns/unit nouns/comparatives/will/etc.
Realia: desks or tables/item cards/pens/money

Shopping is a practical activity and a good simulation topic. This simulation requires two roles: shop-owners and customers. Prior to the simulation, students think of a shop to open. After deciding on what to sell, they make ten or more items to sell in the shop with small cards, as well as naming the shop. In the simulation the class is divided into two groups, shop-owners and customers. They are able to change roles after a period of time in order to experience both parts. The customers go shopping in the shopping mall. They ask about prices, compare different items, or even ask about discounts. The shop owners do their best to sells their items. They may advertise them creatively or have some of them on sale to catch the customers' attention. Paying is an important part of shopping and play money may be used.

3. Blue Thunder

Target level: upper basic to intermediate
Functions: location/directions/describing people and places/orders/etc.
Structures: prepositions of location and movement/present continuous/adjectives/imperatives/etc.
Realia: helicopter sound effects tape/large map of a town/small maps of a town/place and action cards/X and arrow/pictures of people and places/etc.

This is a criminal chase simulation in which there are two roles: the helicopter pilot and the police detective. The pilot flies Blue Thunder—the super helicopter—over a town, chasing a criminal at large. In flight the pilot communicates with the police detective who is at police headquarters. A large map of the town is placed on the board. The teacher uses an X and an arrow to indicate where the criminal is now and where he is headed, and also shows pictures to give extra information about the scene. In the simulation half the students act as pilots and sit facing the map. The other half act as detectives and sit facing the other way. The pilot gives a continual report on the criminal's activities—his location, his clothes, behavior, direction of travel, etc.—to the detective who traces the criminal's activities on his own smaller map of the town based on the information obtained. A helicopter sound effects tape is played throughout the simulation.

4. In Flight

Target level: upper basic to intermediate
Functions: meeting people/past experiences/getting information/future plans/etc.
Structures: simple past/present perfect/past continuous/going to/information questions/etc.
Realia: moveable chairs/in-flight announcement tape/flight menus/role cards/drinks/magazines/etc.

Travel is a natural setting for speaking a foreign language. In this simulation all the students are travelling by air. Before the simulation begins, a jetliner cabin is made in the classroom by rearranging the chairs. Three roles are assumed in this simulation. A few of the students play the role of flight attendants. The rest of the students are divided into Japanese passengers and non-Japanese passengers. The simulation begins when all the passengers are seated and listen to the welcome aboard and take-off announcements on tape. Shortly after take-off drinks are served. Flight dinner follows. In these activities the flight attendants walk around the passengers taking their orders. In the meantime, the passengers strike up conversations on their own, Japanese working with non-Japanese. They get to know each other, talk about their trips, get information about their destinations, etc. The simulation ends when they hear the landing announcement and the plane lands.

Conclusion

Simulations, when properly used, can be a productive approach to learning language which brings students full-fledged communication experience in the target language. They encourage students to solve practical problems which they will encounter in the real world. Simulations are a relatively new method in modern language teaching and have attracted little attention up to now. What is needed at present are more studies and classroom experiments to improve our use of simulations as a method of language teaching.

Failed Encounters--Exploiting Failure for Success in the Language Learning Classroom

Ruth Wajnryb

In recent years language teachers have become increasingly aware that grammatical knowledge (or linguistic competence) does not necessarily make for communicative competence in the language learner. Increasingly, too, we are realizing that factors that do make for communicative competence are many, complex, varied, and by no means yet fully understood. Certainly, we are becoming increasingly aware of the critical role of socio-cultural factors in language learning.

We know that there are times, even as native speakers, when language serves us, and times when it does not. The "bad times" are when it lets us down, when we fail to communicate our true intent, when a situation leaves us lost for words, floundering, aware only of a sense of failure, and dimly, if at all, of the causes. This phenomenon happens even to those who are usually articulate and communicative.

It follows that for non-native speakers functioning in the target language and culture, such "let downs" are bound to happen more frequently, and cause greater frustration and anxiety. This article concerns a way of harnessing such "failed encounters" to good effect in language learning, turning failure into a pedagogic tool so as to help the learner overcome some of the obstacles blocking his or her learning path.

The material that forms the core of the lesson is totally learner-generated. The teacher is calling on the learners' best resource-- that cargo of personal experience which every learner brings to the classroom but which, lamentably, is too rarely called upon in a central and meaningful way. This experiential reservoir becomes the vehicle in a procedure called "Failed Encounters," a simulation based on unsuccessful true experiences of learners. The procedure is outlined in detail below:

Procedure

1. Introduce the topic of "Failed Encounters." Ask the students to consider for a moment those occasions during interactions with native speakers when their English "lets them down": when their language skills "vanish," when they become tongue-tied, when they feel embarrassed, awkward, inferior, inadequate, ashamed, etc. We are looking, in other words, for encounters with native speakers which, for whatever reason, "fail"-- from which the non-native emerges acutely and personally aware of the failed communicative event. Often they know it went wrong but not how or why this happened or what to do about it in a constructive sense. At this point, elicit types of situations when this experience is more likely to happen--that is, high failure-prone situations.

2. Seat students in small compatible groups. Seat people with those they feel comfortable with. Ask them to "buzz" about a specific situation where their English has let them down. Meanwhile, you as teacher, mingle among the groups, eavesdropping closely (if unobtrusively), on the look-out for a situation that will lend itself readily to dramatic simula-

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tion. One that reveals cross-cultural conflict is excellent raw material for our purposes here. (An alternative to step 2 is to record the interactions on the Community Language Learning (C.L.L.) model. The teacher then goes through the tapes out of class, selecting good material for discussion and improvisation. After the choice is made, the relevant sections of the tapes are transcribed and these become the subject of class discussion, providing input for the subsequent improvisation).

3. Call on one situation or "failed encounter"; the student whose encounter it is becomes the "director." The next few steps are as follows:

a. Ask the director to describe exactly what happened and how s/he felt. Details are very important.

b. Elicit and guide class discussion about the scene. The rest of the class may--indeed, should--ask the director questions to ensure they are quite clear about what happened.

c. Select (or have volunteers choose) roles among the protagonists in the scene. The director should not take an acting part. Following the director's guidance, semi-script the encounter. Then have the students act out the scene, always to the satisfaction of the director, who may stop proceedings at any time during rehearsals to make sure it is a faithful rendition of the original encounter. If the director wishes, or if it is thought to be of help, s/he may model key parts in the original encounter.

d. Analyze the situation to discover what the central problem was.

e. Discuss how the problem could have been avoided or repaired.

f. Re-improvise the scene, this time "building in" the remedy.

g. Evaluate to what degree the remedy would have worked in the original setting.

h. Set up comparable encounters modelled on the one just analyzed--and have groups of students enact them.

Further Notes

* The enactment may be videoed for further analysis of both verbal and non-verbal language.

* Native-speaking guests may be utilized to great advantage in both the role-play and the various discussions.

* Each time the lesson is conducted, a different "failed encounter" may serve as the central focus.

* Warning: great delicacy and sensitivity to the individual are recommended throughout the procedure just described as issues relating to socio-cultural judgment can be easily misconstrued and offence can be easily, if inadvertently, caused. This lesson is especially volatile as the methodology is learner-centered.

Acknowledgement

I first heard of the idea of "failed encounters" in an address given by Evelyn Davies at the Sydney ATESOL conference (Jan. 1983) and have since adapted this to the format described in this article.

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BOOK REVIEW

Early Business Contacts. Nick Brieger and Jeremy Comfort. Prentice Hall International (UK) Ltd. 1989.

Congratulations Brieger and Comfort! *Early Business Contacts* is just the text that many of us have been waiting for! The *Early Business Contacts* text and its accompanying cassette include a wide variety of exercises designed to improve the listening and speaking ability of adults who need special focus on business-related topics. They incorporate the highly successful format of the higher-level *Business Contacts* into a series of simpler listening activities that meet the needs of lower intermediate students.

Like the higher-level *Business Contacts*, *Early Business Contacts'* major strengths are in its flexibility and self-sufficiency. The listening passages can be adapted to a wide variety of classroom situations, or the text can stand by itself as an excellent source for self-study. The instructions are clear and concise and the answers are supplied in the back of the text. Topic themes and their corresponding passages are extremely well-chosen for lower intermediate students who plan to do business in English. Units on company organization, giving and understanding directions, and a unit on giving a factory tour are especially good themes that are not included in the higher-level *Business Contacts*. Though the American accents on the audio tape sound a bit odd at times, the incorporation of a wide variety of accents (as in *Technical Contacts*) is a definite strength. In contrast to many other lower intermediate listening texts, *Early Business Contacts* does not sacrifice authenticity or maturity of language in order to simplify the listening exercises.

Early Business Contacts is, however, quite limited in expansion activities for the listening passages. The exercises in the book are clear and straight-forward but lack much variety or creativity. The transfer activities are a step in this direction, but a teacher's manual with creative ways to more fully exploit the excellent listening passages would strengthen *Early Business Contacts* as a teaching resource. In general, the text is laid out quite nicely; however, in several places, the text doesn't allow enough space for students to write in their answers. In contrast to *Business Contacts*, *Early Business Contacts* includes some rather strange drawings of people, but the other graphics found in the text are excellent. There are also a few minor errors on page numbers in the Table of Contents. Teachers in our own particular program would have appreciated a few more units on process description, comparison, and graph work.

I would not hesitate to highly recommend this text for use with any lower intermediate Business English student. Examination copies are easy to obtain and further copies are easy to order. *Early Business Contacts* is another addition to a fine series of Business English texts written by Brieger and company.

Eric Herbel

Eric Herbel is currently Academic Supervisor at the Language Institute of Japan.

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IATEFL 24th International Conference (held jointly with NATEFLI). March 27-30, 1990. Trinity College, Dublin. Aspects of Irish literary tradition will be featured in this program. Programs will include presentations in the areas of Business English, CALL, ELT Management, Learner Independence, Literature, Phonology, Teacher Development, Teacher Trainers, Testing, and Video and Young Learners. For further information please write to: IATEFL, 3 Kingsdown Chambers, Kingsdown Park, Tankerton, Whitstable, Kent, England CT5 2DJ.

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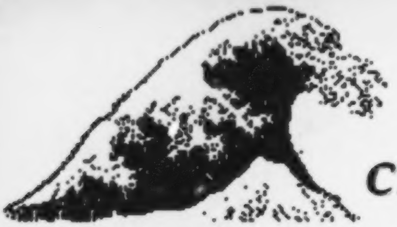

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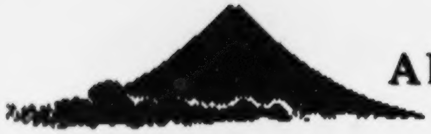

ABOUT THIS ISSUE

Cross Currents Vol. 16, No. 2 opens with a question: "International TESOL: Where Is Our Profession Going?" In his editorial, *Cross Currents*' manuscripts editor Thomas Clayton describes the present state of international TESOL based on his teaching experiences in Asia. Clayton concludes his essay with some possibilities for the future direction of the international TESOL profession.

Cross Currents' lead article, "Team Teaching—TNT: Trials and Tribulations or Dynamite," relates the author's experiences in coordinating an English team teaching program in Japanese public schools. Author Don Maybin designed the Kamonomiya project that brought four foreign English teachers together with four Japanese teachers of English. His article reports the successes and the failures of the Kamonomiya project, and offers suggestions that will benefit other team teaching efforts. Included with Maybin's article is a pamphlet written by the LIOJ Workshop Team Teaching Publication Project. Titled "Let's Work Together," the pamphlet promotes successful team teaching.

Janet Anderson-Hsieh's article, "Approaches Toward Teaching Pronunciation: A Brief History," discusses the changes in ESL pronunciation teaching over the last twenty-five years. Her article reviews current literature in the field of pronunciation teaching, and draws conclusions that are relevant to Japanese ESL teaching.

"Grammar: To Teach or Not To Teach?" suggests a distinction between language as a means of communication and language as a means of representation and expression. Author Walter Hirtle explores this dichotomy and argues that grammar can be better taught if it is viewed as more than simply a set of syntactic rules.

Glenn Gainer, William Lee, and Brenda Lee outline a drama workshop approach to English language learning in "Learning English on Stage." Their article, which grew from their experiences running ESL drama workshops, examines the benefits of drama preparation and presentation for ESL students.

Keith Maurice's article, "Conversational Crutches in the Classroom," discusses English fillers and hesitation devices. Maurice argues that there are benefits in teaching these structures to ESL learners.

"Cautionary Notes on Oral Language Testing" explains problems involved in designing accurate oral language tests. Author Scott Petersen examines problems with both proficiency and achievement testing.

Cross Currents presents two Bright Ideas in this issue. In "*Bunraku*: Japanese Puppets and English as a Second Language," David Wardell surveys current literature in the field of puppetry and second language acquisition. Wardell narrates his experiences in using *bunraku*, a form of Japanese classical puppetry, in an ESL workshop. Wardell includes a full-length play script written by the Japanese participants in the workshop.

Carl Watts' Bright Idea "Explanation Strategies" outlines the steps an ESL teacher can take to introduce, practice, and review strategies by which ESL students can learn to "talk around" gaps in their lexical knowledge.

Finally, *Cross Currents* presents two Book Reviews. Kim Edwards examines *Learning to Learn English*, a study skills approach to ESL. Robert Ruud discusses *The Cambridge English Course, Book 2* based on his use of the book in the classroom.

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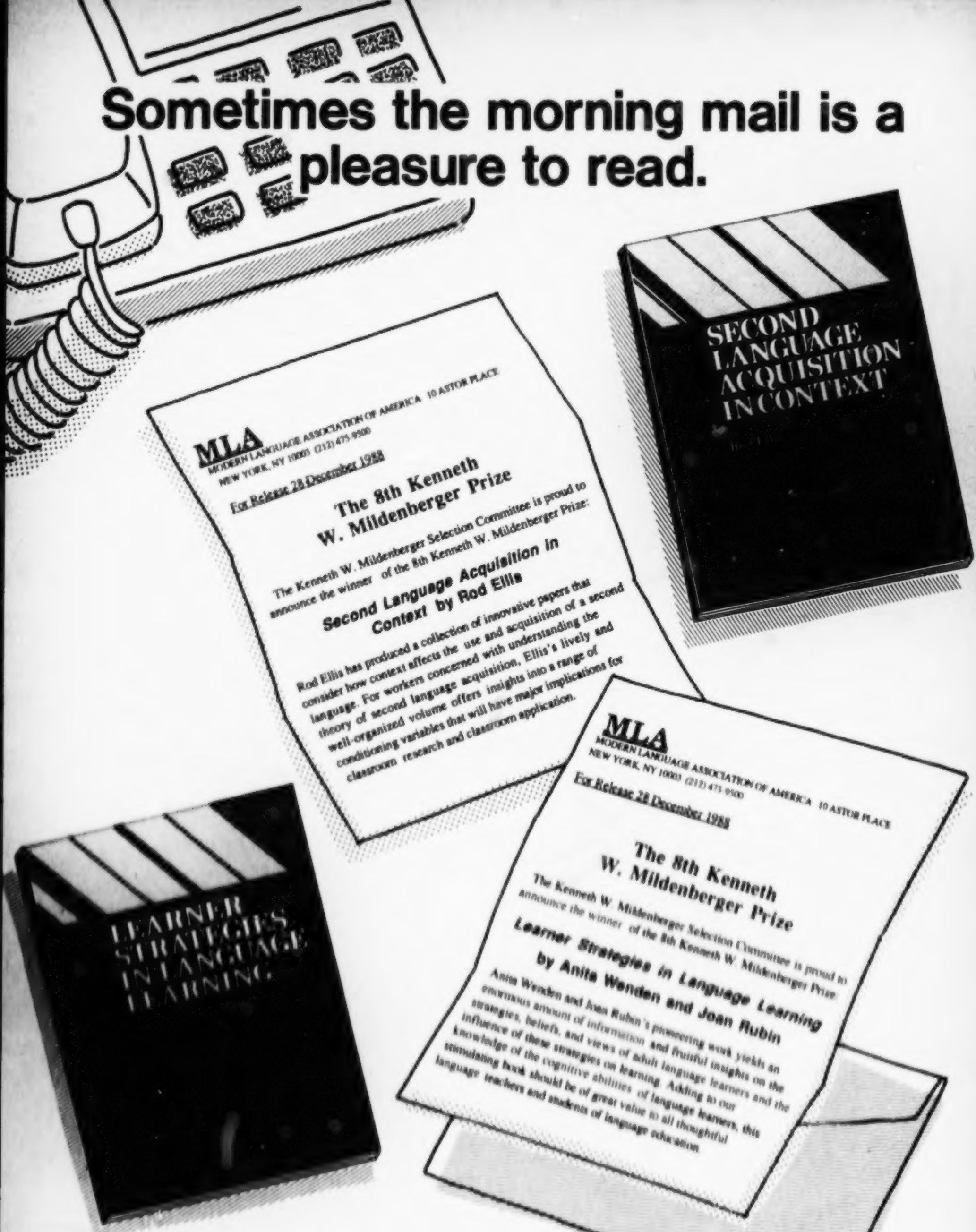
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EDITORIAL

International Teaching of English to Speakers of Other Languages: Where Is Our Profession Going?

Thomas Clayton

I am writing this essay during LIOJ's Fall Vacation. The hallways of our building are dark and unpeopled. Construction noise echoes up the stairwells—our basement classrooms are being remodeled, I think. Earlier this afternoon I stumbled over a pile of lumber and broken plaster in the teachers' office and discovered that the ceiling had been ripped out and was in the process of being rebuilt.

I find this an entirely comfortable atmosphere in which to think. It's a chance to sort out the lumber of my own mind, and to reflect on the unfinished projects of my own imagination.

Many of LIOJ's teachers are off wandering around other parts of Asia during this vacation—Korea, the Philippines, Thailand. A group of three teachers has gone to Malaysia, my home for two years immediately before I came to Japan. My wife and I were just reminiscing this morning about our lives in Malaysia, and about Pulau Tioman, a Malaysian island that we know well, where our LIOJ colleagues have gone. It's easy to imagine them lying on the white-sand beach in the feathery shadows of coconut palms, sipping cool drinks and watching the village children splash around in the sea.

Somehow, in these romantic reveries, I always seem to forget the sand flies that swelled our arms and legs, the tiny, transparent jellyfish that stung like electric shocks, and the giardia that I picked up while there and carried around, uncomfortably, for months after our visit. Perhaps it is simply human nature that the past be preserved sweeter than the present.

One thing I do remember clearly, a story that has become canonized in the overseas teaching lore my wife and I instinctively collect, is a conversation we had one afternoon with a group of young travelers.

We had hiked across the island in search of a mythical coral reef and, arriving in the indescribably hot mid-afternoon, had stopped at a small coffee shop for lunch. This coffee shop, like many others on Pulau Tioman, was filled with young Westerners drinking tea and writing postcards, hiding from the afternoon sun. We inquired about the coral—no one knew anything—and gradually entered into the conversation. We talked about where we had been in Asia, our favorite places, the cheapest hotels—all those things that shoestring travelers always talk about. The conversation was desultory, lazy, pointless. We talked to pass the time.

Then my wife mentioned that we lived nearby and taught English at a government college. Immediately, everyone was interested: Where do you live? Where's your college? Are there other Westerners there? What's it like living in Malaysia? After we answered, a young Dutch woman, who spoke

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flawless, unaccented English, asked the question that we had come to expect in these conversations: "How can I get a job like that?"

In the past I had always put this question off with some flip answer like, "You can have mine if you want it," but that afternoon I didn't. I guess I had simply heard the question too often. I was tired of people thinking that just because they could speak English they could also teach English to other language users. So I said, "First go to school for two years and get a master's in linguistics or education. Then find a job in your own country and get a few years teaching experience. After that you can apply for a job like ours."

She was completely unfazed by my intended ferocity. "Oh," she said. "You must be a *real* teacher."

We left the coffee shop shortly after that. We never did find the coral.

The Issue

This conversation has been on my mind ever since I arrived in Japan, probably because of the large numbers of *unreal* teachers I've met here, my uncertainty about the quality of their teaching, and my concern for the Teaching of English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) profession.

First, let me define my terms. By a *real* TESOL teacher, I mean someone who is a professional teacher. This person will have specialized knowledge of linguistics, education, or some other related field, and will have advanced academic training as a teacher. In Japan, this person is either Japanese, a Western native English speaker, or a completely fluent English language speaker from another non-Western country. By an *unreal* TESOL teacher, I mean someone who does not have knowledge or training, but who teaches English anyway. Usually this person is a young Western traveler, a native English speaker, who seeks and finds temporary, transient work to make some extra money. An *unreal* TESOL teacher summed up his attitude toward TESOL teaching one day when he said: "Anytime I need extra money, I'll just come back to Japan and teach English again."

It isn't difficult to figure out why there are so many *unreal* TESOL teachers in Japan: There are simply more people who want to learn English than there are qualified people to teach English. Japanese universities, Japanese public schools, and the better language schools, attract the qualified TESOL professionals, leaving a professional vacuum in language schools which have perhaps a lesser reputation and pay lower salaries. This vacuum—a demand for teachers no matter what their qualification—is filled with the casual, *unreal* TESOL teacher.

This situation is quite satisfactory for young native English speakers who can enjoy living in Japan and making some money before moving on to other travels. But this situation is troubling to those professional teachers who want to see TESOL become a recognized, respected, international profession. Currently, the profession, on the international level, appears to be stalled at a crossroads, uncertain which direction to turn. It can either carry on under the present reality, wherein to speak English is equated with the ability to teach English; or it can move toward a universally recognized standard, perhaps a license or a credential, which represents advanced academic and teaching training and which is necessary for admission into the practicing profession.

However, some fundamental questions need to be raised and resolved before the international TESOL profession's new direction is undertaken. Are untrained TESOL teachers necessarily poorer teachers than trained TESOL teachers? Should the TESOL profession establish itself according to an academic code of requirements, especially considering that not all TESOL is academic? If a license, for instance, should become a requirement, how would the different preparatory educational systems in English speaking countries achieve parity? Furthermore, how could the international TESOL profession police its required license, particularly in language schools which fall outside academia?

I don't intend to give any definitive answers for these questions. My intent in this essay is only to raise these questions, to consider them, and to solicit a further discussion among *Cross Currents*' readers on the subject.

I should also note that while the dichotomy of *real* and *unreal* TESOL teachers is perhaps most evident in Japan due to Japan's high demand for English language skills, the situation also exists in other countries. I have encountered *unreal* TESOL teachers in Thailand, Malaysia, and the People's Republic of China; and the situation is surely wider than my experience. Therefore, while the primary focus of this essay is professionalism in TESOL in Japan, the focus of the issue is not. It is international. I hope that the future *Cross Currents* discussion will include comments and opinions from beyond Japan, and will recognize and address the issue as international in scope.

The Case for the Status Quo

The position of this side of the issue is that expertise and advanced academic training are not necessary requirements to successful TESOL teaching. In fact, such requirements do not philosophically apply to many TESOL situations, and are therefore moot. The necessary requirements for TESOL teaching, proponents on this side of the issue argue, are native language proficiency and good teaching performance.

Many people will disagree with any assertion that non-professional teachers are necessarily poorer teachers than professional teachers. There are thousands of non-professional TESOL teachers now in Japan, and most of them are probably doing a conscientious job. Even if they don't know as much about TESOL theory and methodology as a professional, they nevertheless provide one-to-one conversation opportunities, modeling of native speech patterns, vocabulary and idioms, and cultural information, to Japanese students who might otherwise have none of these. Since I don't often encounter vitriolic criticism directed toward non-professional teachers, I must necessarily assume that, on the whole, they are performing a solicited service to an acceptable degree of quality. There is a certain undeniable proof of their success in the largely unquestioned status quo.

Beyond this, it may be unfair to some teachers to term them *unprofessional* simply because they do not have a master's degree or a TESOL teaching certificate. *Professionalism* has more than a strict academic meaning; it can also mean the *bearing* or the *ethics* with which a person carries him or herself while performing a service. I certainly know teachers who are not professional in an academic sense, but who are excellent, creative, imaginative teachers with unquestioned ethics and integrity. It is difficult, therefore, to make a blanket statement about the quality of non-professional TESOL teachers' teaching ability.

It is also necessary to consider the purposes for which we teach TESOL when we consider the qualifications required for teaching. To suggest, for instance, that TESOL professionalism be established on the basis of an academic code is to suggest that all TESOL teaching is academic. It is not. It is academic, business-related, and conversational—to name the most popular applications today in Japan.

Just because most universities in the United States and Japan now require that their TESOL instructors have a master's degree, usually in linguistics or education, as well as extensive teaching experience, that requirement should not necessarily be applied to all TESOL teaching. Unlike university TESOL programs which are designed to improve the academic English language skills of students who will go on to achieve degrees within the university, many of Japan's small language schools exist primarily to improve the functional English language skills for Japanese who intend to travel and/or to conduct business in English speaking countries. The scope of a language school's curriculum is far less comprehensive and ambitious than a university's intensive English program. For instance, a language school might teach specific functional skills, like making telephone hotel reservations in English, whereas a university might teach listening communicative competence for use in comprehending a wide variety of professional lectures. The priorities and the goals of the two systems are entirely different.

It follows, therefore, that the educational requirements for teachers of the two different systems could also be different. It may be that the functional language of survival and situation, which is the most important to Japanese businessmen and casual travelers, could be taught successfully by any conscientious native English speaking teacher, just as academic English, which is most important to TESOL learners in a university system, is best taught by those TESOL professionals who are educated and trained in an academic setting.

Perhaps in regard to certain TESOL situations, the criteria for professionalism would be best defined, as they are now in many Japanese language schools, by teacher interest, general creativity, and, ultimately, performance.

The Case for Academic License

On the other side of the issue is the argument in favor of a universally recognized academic standard necessary for participation in the TESOL profession. For ease of argument, I will refer to this as a *license*, though other titles, such as *certification* or *credential* would be equally apt. This side argues that a teacher, in order to qualify for an international TESOL position, should be required to gain expertise in his or her TESOL-related field, to complete advanced academic training as a teacher, and to receive an international license. These requirements are necessary, according to the proponents of this argument, in order to ensure the excellence and growth of international TESOL as a profession.

Many people believe that the system of TESOL teacher education that has developed in English speaking countries is good and necessary. To be a TESOL teacher requires more than native speaker proficiency; and to teach English requires more than casual knowledge. Knowledge of content and formal schemata in ESL reading, for instance, will allow a teacher to use appropriate materials for the background knowledge of particular student populations in order to improve English reading comprehension. These reading theories can also be applied to the teaching of other communication tasks—speaking, for example—with similar results. Though students will certainly benefit from any contact with native English speakers, educated TESOL professionals can go beyond modeling, to teaching. Professional TESOL teachers can use their knowledge of TESOL methodology and theory to invest their teaching, and to comprehensively improve their students' English communication ability.

Another precept of teacher education is to observe experienced teachers and to practice teaching. This segment of a professional teacher's education is included so that the teacher will emerge from the university a professional in both senses of the word: academically prepared due to the field of expertise the teacher has mastered, but also professional in integrity and bearing. The new teacher will have had the opportunity to observe other professionals in the classroom, and will therefore be knowledgeable about appropriate teacher behavior. Though this period of observation and practice does not guarantee professionalism, it does, at the very least, provide a successful model of professional behavior and professional teaching style to follow until the neophyte teacher can discover his or her own personal approach. This model provides the academically prepared teacher an immediate advantage over the inexperienced, non-professional teacher.

If we accept the preceding arguments that methodological/theoretical knowledge and teacher training—the two precepts of academic teacher education—produce better and more professional teachers, and if we care about the reputation of the international TESOL profession, then it follows that we must allow the academy to define the profession. That is, we must let the academy set the standards of expertise, teacher training, and licensing, as preliminaries for entrance into the practicing profession. Though there are different purposes in different TESOL situations, the priorities of individual situations, whether specific function language or general communicative competence, as in my example above, are subsidiary to a larger, common goal: to teach students from non-English language backgrounds to communicate in English. In order to best achieve that goal, the international TESOL profession must strive for uniformly excellent teachers; and, in order to be uniformly excellent, TESOL teachers must be academically trained and educated.

Many people argue that it is not only the *right*, but also the *responsibility*, of the academy to define professional qualification. TESOL is in its infancy, internationally speaking; it doesn't know what it is yet. As English continues to emerge as the international language of business and education for developed countries, and as more third world countries enter the international business place and seek to provide English education for their young people, there will be an increased demand for TESOL teachers, and the international TESOL profession will continue to grow. Now is the time for the profession to examine and define itself and its practicing requirements, so that it can advance its reputation and excellence in the future. Since the academy sets the standards for the best contemporary TESOL teachers, the academy should also accept the responsibility for directing the young international profession into the future.

Perhaps these needs could best be met by a universally accepted standard of education and training. These components could be translated into an international license which could be issued to qualified professionals, and which would allow teachers to practice the TESOL profession internationally. While this would not guarantee the excellence of teachers as individuals, this license could guarantee the excellence of teachers' educational preparation. The analysis of a teacher's personality, or *rightness* for a particular job, would have to be undertaken, as it is now, by the conscientious administrator in interview.

Beyond License

At the end of *The Sun Also Rises*, Brett says to Jake: "Isn't it pretty to think so." She is referring to the impossibility of their future lives together; they enjoy thinking about it, but know that it won't work.

Some people would argue that the idea of a universally accepted TESOL license would be "pretty to think" about, but would be impossible to manage. Not only would the different preparatory educational systems in different English speaking countries be difficult to equate, but there would be no way to enforce the license in the myriad international universities, schools and language institutes.

Others acknowledge the difficulty of these tasks, but do not consider them impossible. The key to the answers to both of these questions would be the establishment of an International Governing Organization of TESOL. As the licensing which this Organization would oversee would be academic in base, the Organization itself would be academic in background. Perhaps representatives of outstanding universities from countries which offer academic TESOL programs could be selected as participants in the Organization. This Organization could first define the minimum qualification requirements for licensing. Perhaps this would be the equivalent of a U.S. master's in linguistics or education, or a bachelor's with an education or ESL certification. These requirements could then be translated into the different educational systems of the participating countries. In this way, the differences in terminology that exist between the U.S. educational system, the British educational system, the Japanese educational system, etc., could be discussed and equated, and a common license defined.

Harder to manage would be the policing of the established license. In fact, it would simply be impossible for the Organization to ensure that only licensed TESOL professionals were hired for international TESOL positions. However, even though the Organization could not work as an enforcer, it could work prescriptively. The Organization could issue, for instance, accreditation to those universities, schools, and language institutes that hired only licensed professionals. The Organization could undertake an advertising campaign, through professional journals as well as popular newspapers and magazines, designed to educate the public of TESOL marketplaces, like Japan, about the benefits of professionally educated and licensed teachers. At the same time, accredited schools could similarly advertise their license and excellence.

It is possible to imagine a situation where the TESOL public in Japan would recognize the value of attending English classes taught by licensed teachers, and would shift toward those schools which offered such opportunities. This shift in perception would create a new twist in the tug of war between supply and demand that currently creates TESOL jobs for casual travelers. TESOL teachers would still be in high demand, but only licensed, professional teachers would qualify. The population of licensed professionals currently in Japan would soon be depleted, and more schools would begin to recruit overseas at universities and conferences in English speaking countries. The population of licensed TESOL professionals in Japan would expand, and the quality of TESOL education would improve. This same pattern would presumably be followed in other international TESOL marketplaces as well.

Naturally, this would not happen overnight. Even an optimist might allow it ten or twenty years. However, if it is the goal of international TESOL to become a recognized and respected profession, and if it is the goal of international TESOL to begin examining, defining, and advancing itself as a unified profession, it could be one place to start.

Conclusion and Solicitation

I said near the beginning of this essay that international TESOL appears to be at a crossroads, uncertain about which direction to turn. I have suggested a few alternatives, and have discussed them briefly. The intention of this essay is to invite a further discussion on this question and all other relevant questions.

Therefore, *Cross Currents* invites any further discussion on the topic of *International Teaching of English to Speakers of Other Languages: Where is Our Profession Going?* for publication in a future issue.

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Team Teaching—TNT: Trials and Tribulations or Dynamite

Don Maybin

Having taught various languages for about fifteen years, ten of them in Japan, I feel as prepared as the next *sensei* [1] for most classroom contexts to be encountered in this country. However, when approached by my former employer, the Language Institute of Japan (LIOJ), to coordinate an experimental team-teaching project with eight English language teachers (4 foreigners, 4 Japanese) for students of Kamonomiya Junior High School, I was, well, nervous.

Team-teaching in Japan usually involves a foreign instructor and a local instructor working together with junior or senior high students. It is *the* hot education topic in Japan today, and existing programs, particularly those conducted under the auspices of the Japanese Ministry of Education, *Mombusho*, are the focus of a great deal of media attention. However, much of the commentary is pessimistic. Letters to editors of national newspapers regularly detail horror stories of incompetency and insensitivity by both instructors as they apparently wrestle through the lesson plan and with each other. One suspects a great deal of time, money and human resources are currently being expended to create an educational nightmare for both teachers and students.

My own limited team-teaching experience had taken place years before and had also been rather dismal. On a 'moms-and-tots' program for immigrant women in Vancouver, Canada, my co-teacher spent most of each lesson frantically translating every word into Hindi for the benefit of a primarily Punjabi-speaking class. There was a constant struggle for airtime between myself and the other instructor, with the students rarely getting a word in edgewise.

However, duty called and, rather than face the inevitable unprepared, I began doing some homework by contacting acquaintances in the Japan Association of Language Teachers (JALT), friends presently working as teachers and trainers on *Mombusho's* Assistant English Teacher (A.E.T.) program, and the Yokohama Education Center.

A Dismal Outlook

Team-teaching arrangements in Japan could potentially bring needed reform and new energy into a system which is easily criticized but difficult to change. As anyone associated with Japanese secondary schools knows, the study of English in these institutions is primarily a text-test phenomenon. Students furiously memorize lists of vocabulary and grammatical rules and parrot intricate phrases a native speaker would have trouble comprehending. There are local teachers who do their best to liven up a lesson, but, with only three periods a week and the inevitable test waiting at the end of the road, it is a struggle.

Then, one day, in walks a new face. Not only does the visitor look exotic, but he or she actually speaks the language which, until then, had been equated with the study of math or history. Suddenly, English becomes a living language, the lesson takes on a new, novel dimension, and students, observing the interaction between the two teachers, are inspired to struggle through the texts, out the classroom door, and into the realm of eventual fluency.

Don Maybin currently teaches at Kagawa University. He has also taught in Canada, England, and Thailand. He has administered and participated in many teacher training workshops in Japan.

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[1] teacher

Right?

Theoretically, yes. But the reality is often quite different. Long before both teachers enter the classroom as a team, problems can develop. Consider the possible preconceptions each side may have of the other, and how these influence the subsequent working relationship. Local teachers of English may be regarded as inefficient by administrators, parents, and even their fellow English teachers; yet, they can be very competent given the constraints of the existing system. Ultimately, the proof is in the examination pudding, and most Japanese instructors are very capable when preparing their charges for the "examination hell," having survived it themselves. However, the end product is often a high school graduate who can read and write with some degree of fluency, but who is incapable of comprehending or verbally expressing even simple ideas or information in the dreaded foreign tongue. While communicative competency converts roll their eyes in disgust, the sincere efforts of the local teacher are belittled or ignored.

The visiting foreign instructor, on the other hand, is often touted as a teacher by virtue of being a native speaker, when, in fact, this may be his or her first foray into the language-learning classroom. What starts off as a novel, nervous encounter with local kids, can soon deteriorate into dreary, endless rounds of *Hello-how-are-you?* if the visiting teacher is not aware of basic techniques, activities, and materials, and has no specific linguistic or behavioural goals.

Teachers are territorial. The regular teacher may resent the invasion of a foreign teacher into his or her classroom. Often, with apparently little preparation or practice, the visitor is able to entertain by virtue of being different or exotic, which leaves the local teacher with a tough act to follow the next day. If there is not consideration for official school materials and the official school teacher, the latter begins to feel the entire exercise is an intrusion and a waste of time. At the same time, the foreign teacher may feel on display, as he or she is paraded about the classroom(s) each day. These feelings can easily result in mutual teacher antagonism.

The role of the local instructor usually manifests itself in one of two very different ways. Firstly, there is the instructor who is unhappy about the visit and decides early in the game to divorce him or herself from the session by sitting at the back of the room telling the visiting teacher to, "Do whatever you like." This is fine for those visitors with a dramatic flair, where every class is a captive audience; but what of the foreign instructor who is a little hesitant, perhaps even shy? Despite the television stereotype, some *gaijin*[2] can be positively introverted. Pity the instructor who came to Japan expecting a reserved, polite audience only to discover himself caught in a squealing mob of teenaged terrors. One-to-one encounters can be fascinating, but given the above scenario, the obvious presence of a local instructor is essential to maintain order.

However, by constantly intervening in Japanese, the local instructor may suddenly take on an equally unproductive role—that of classroom translator. This role is easily assumed and can do major damage to the language learning process as students stop listening in English and wait expectantly for translation of even the simplest phrases. Unfortunately, some instructors encourage this arrangement because both teachers remain busy while the students understand the lesson and are well-behaved.

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[2] foreigner(s)

On the other hand, even when both teachers are using English, what the class is exposed to can sometimes be a misshapen model of the real thing. Native speakers may tailor their language to such an extent that the end result is a slow, stilted, simplified, even broken form of the target language. Meanwhile, if the local instructor feels compelled to prove his or her competence in English, the result may be totally unfamiliar behaviour for the students, such as frantic gesturing and rapid-fire speech. As any non-native language teacher knows, it can be a very uncomfortable feeling to have to perform in front of one's class with a native speaker present. We are our own worst critics and, although the native speaker might feel the local teacher's language skills are exceptional, the latter may assume every incorrect verb conjugation or pronunciation slip is greatly magnified in front of the class, whose respect he or she is trying to maintain.

The Positive Side

The above suggests gloomy prospects for the team-taught classroom; but this need not be the case. Given the real or imagined weaknesses of both teachers, there are still numerous strengths which they possess and which can be emphasized during the lesson to everyone's advantage.

The visiting teacher may be young and inexperienced, but, given time, sympathy, and a desire to improve, he or she can become acquainted with the intricacies of each classroom, acquire the means and materials to interest and motivate students, and build his or her own self-confidence. Students *are* excited about having a foreign visitor in class, though they may be too shy or frightened to speak when approached individually in front of their peers. English *does* come to life, and, assuming the native speaker is conversing naturally, students are exposed to a more exact speech model in terms of delivery speed, pronunciation, and overall sentence stress and intonation.

The visiting instructor is also an important primary source of cultural input. After all, he or she is a native speaker with all the experiences, attitudes, and values that that implies. The visiting teacher's family in his or her home country can also be an excellent source of realia for use in the classroom.

Perhaps most important, no matter how abysmally a lesson seems to be going, if students are able to accept the foreign visitor's presence without giggling or gagging, panicking or pointing, a major accomplishment will have been achieved in the eventual development of a more open, tolerant attitude to others different from oneself.

But what of the local teacher? With all the excitement over the new kid on the block, we often forget about the person who has been there all along and is responsible for the class. Local teachers know the students and, if they have even a limited acquaintance with the visiting instructor, they can serve as a necessary bridge between both parties. Until visitor and visited feel more comfortable with each other, it is the local teacher who acts as liaison. Specific involvement of the local teacher throughout the lesson is vital, particularly in earlier lessons. Local teachers know which students are the most capable and cooperative, and which are prepared to perform when called upon. This knowledge is invaluable in order to establish appropriate behavioural models for the rest of the class to imitate. Directions are also easier to get across, since the local instructor speaks three languages—Japanese, English and students' English. He or she knows which standard directions the learners are familiar with and can also put his or her finger on any number of English words which exist in modern Japanese to convey the visiting teacher's intended meaning without reverting to the mother tongue.

Even when the lesson does not seem to be progressing as well as it should be, the English discussion between both teachers can serve to motivate. Suddenly the local teacher is perceived as being able to communicate in English and, where students may have found it nonsensical that two Japanese (i.e. the local teacher and student) should be using a foreign language to communicate, they accept such usage with the visiting teacher present. This use of English by their regular teacher to communicate with a foreigner can serve as a major motivational force for students as they realize that the goal of fluency in the target language is attainable. In other words, "If my teacher can do it, so can I!" Furthermore, having proven his or her ability in the target language with a native speaking instructor, the local teacher's increased use of English in his or her regular classes can be legitimized and can be more readily accepted by the students.

Consultation—The Key

With its change of focus and style, a team-taught lesson is intrinsically more interesting than a regular class. Yet, if there is an obvious lack of cooperation between the two teachers, such sessions can prove a disappointment. Students are sensitive to the milieu and, if the instructors are on friendly terms, or are at least comfortable with each other, students can relax, enjoy the lesson, and potentially learn. However, contrary to popular belief, teachers are not gods. They require time to get to know one another and perform smoothly as a team in the classroom. Obviously, two instructors who have just met five minutes previously in the staff room are going to have great difficulty once in class. It is critical that team-teachers take every opportunity to get acquainted before they work together in the classroom. Such contact need not be official; a relaxed visit to a coffee shop is worth a hundred formal bowing sessions in the principal's office. Nor does it need to be in person; a regular telephone call works wonders, while letters of introduction or explanation can prove clearer than a nervous conversation, especially in the beginning when teachers may have trouble putting their thoughts into words. From the outset, the more consulting that takes place, the greater the chances that a congenial working arrangement will develop and grow.

Discussions that focus on the lesson, both before and after it is taught, are particularly important. Teachers should discuss what took place in the classroom and how they can better complement each other's performances in order to improve their teaching. Every lesson has its low points and instructors should clear the air after each classroom session, discussing such aspects as sharing of the workload, discipline, and alternative teaching approaches and techniques. Criticism should be of a constructive nature. It is destructive and useless to point out negative aspects of a teacher's performance if they are beyond the person's power to change. Also, even the most dismal lesson can have benefits if the subsequent discussion is positive and results in a better rapport between the instructors.

The Lesson Plan

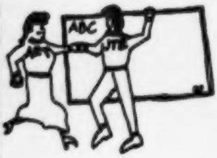
One teacher should be placed in charge of lesson planning. Initial discussion of topics, structures, vocabulary, etc., can be carried out by both teachers; however, it is more efficient and less stressful to the working relationship if it is the clear responsibility of one teacher to prepare the weekly lesson plan. On the other hand, once a core plan has been prepared, it should be typed up and given to the other instructor as quickly as possible so that the latter can suggest possible changes before the plan is tested in the classroom. Having a rough, printed lesson plan in advance facilitates discussion between instructors, including telephone conversations, and makes it possible to make last minute changes before and during the lesson.

Basic features of the Kamonomiya lesson plans included an initial statement of the goals. Linguistic goals were taken from official school texts to reinforce usage and demonstrate the potential for transfer; e.g., "This is *a pen/my friend/where I live*." Communicative goals included language for task-oriented activities, such as asking for repetitions, clarification, spelling, etc. Cultural goals were broader, requiring the students to note similarities as well as differences between cultures. Typically, lessons included an initial input phase, such as a taped passage or model dialogue presented by both teachers, followed by controlled practice, e.g. the class interviewing the visiting teacher, or teams exchanging information as both teachers circulated and assisted, and finally a rapid-fire quiz based on the information elicited in the controlled practice phase. Team representatives competed to answer questions, receiving one point for each attempt and three points for each correct answer. This system reduced students' fear of making mistakes and encouraged answers from less confident students. It was clear that, when interested in the lesson topic, students were capable of comprehending complex questions, though their responses were obviously limited.

Other considerations of the Kamonomiya lesson plans included making initial input as simple as possible, with information growing increasingly more complex as the lesson progressed. Also, students worked in groups or pairs at the outset of the lesson, but by the end of the class were expected to answer, write, etc., by themselves. An initial group or pair effort was felt necessary since students were more willing to commit themselves to an answer, whether correct or not, if others were part of the decision-making process ("It's *our* mistake, not mine..."). In fact, the exploitation of groups was a key feature of each lesson plan, and a great deal of time was spent experimenting with various combinations of students, though the results were mixed. There are cliques in any class, which can disrupt a lesson; and the angelic clutch of uniformed ladies in the corner can do as much damage with their non-stop chatter as the sullen, spiky-haired and Frankenstein-socked gentlemen seated next to them. Various techniques were tried to break up these cliques, including forming pairs with students from adjacent rows; assigning numbers and having students sit with others having the same number; shuffling name tags and placing them, and their owners, at random desks; and arbitrarily assigning students to groups, though all-girl, all-boy groups were found to perform less efficiently than mixed groups. Seating changes were carried out quickly at the beginning of the class to avoid disruptions later on.

Perhaps the most important, innovative feature of later lesson plans was that they were broken down into the various teacher tasks to be performed, but the tasks were not assigned. It was the responsibility of each teacher to read the plan, tentatively decide which tasks he or she wished to do, then discuss with the other instructor in order to reach a final decision as to who would do what. This method guaran-

Maybin's article continues on page 70.



How to Create Good Relationships

In order to establish trusting relationships between JTEs and AETs:

- Prior to the first AET visit, it is helpful if the JTE "prepare" the students and fellow colleagues for the visit.
- Prior to the class, communication between the team teachers is essential. Use whatever means are available—meetings, telephone calls or letters.
- The JTE and AET should have as many discussions as possible before and after the class.
- Extend invitations to the AETs for school meetings, activities and events, e.g., teachers' meetings, parties, school festivals, sports days, school trips, club activities, etc. (Keep inviting the AETs whether or not they can attend.)
- The AET and JTE should respect each other as colleagues.

Class Management

Discipline

Because discipline problems may be handled differently in the AET's culture, it is important to discuss:

- Who will be responsible for any discipline problems. (Usually the JTE is responsible.)
- Possible ways to handle discipline problems before they occur.
- Any concerns about class management.

"Gaijin Shock"

The JTE should prepare students for the first meeting with the AET. Students should be made aware that pointing, shouting, giggling, and laughing at a person, etc., are considered rude behavior.

Likewise, the AET should keep in mind that he/she is dealing with KIDS, not adults, and that the pointing, shouting, giggling and laughing are often done out of interest or nervousness and that no harm is intended by the students.

Uncomfortable Feelings

AETs often feel uncomfortable when people behave too formally, for example, *kiritsu* and *rei*, (standing and bowing). The JTE should explain to the AET the reasons for these formalities before the first class.

AETs should realize that Japanese people often feel uncomfortable when an AET sits on a desk, chews gum during the class, or stands on desks or chairs with shoes on.

"Patience is the Key"

Understanding cultural differences is what "international understanding" is all about. It is a long-term learning process for everyone.

Working Together

How can JTEs and AETs work together towards effective team teaching? Building up a good relationship with mutual respect between the JTEs and AETs is important. First, establish harmony between yourself and your partner. After this is achieved, open communication will occur which leads to a communicative and effective way of team teaching.

It is hoped that the ideas and suggestions below will help both

FOR SUCCESSFUL TEAM TEACHING

the AET and the JTE get more involved in team teaching.

There are 3 main stages of successful team teaching: planning, teaching, and evaluating.

Both teachers should be involved to some extent in the entire process of team teaching.

Planning

An original lesson plan should be made by either the JTE or the AET.

The plan should be discussed by both teachers, revised, and then each teacher should choose which role he/she will take in the classroom. It is important that both teachers ***share*** in the delivery of the lesson to the students.

Choose lesson topics that students will be interested in and base the lessons on the textbook.

New sentence pattern activities should be meaningful to the students. Make the activities "real" so that the students can relate them to their daily life.

Teaching

Let the students know that the teachers are comfortable working together in the classroom.

Generally, group work is effective for involving the entire class in an activity because it reduces the students' anxiety and nervousness.

Don't stick to one particular method. Be flexible. Each class is different.

The JTE should not act as an interpreter and the AET should not be used as a "human tape recorder."

Evaluating

After each class, the teachers should review the lesson and give each other ***constructive*** criticism for improving their team teaching technique. Ask each other, "How can *we* do better?"

Evaluating the class and the students is required. There is no best way to do this, so it is important that both teachers decide what is the best method for them, then work together to share the responsibility.

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Many thanks to all the LIOJ Workshop participants, staff and guest lecturers who kindly participated in our project.

Cross Currents **Editorial Note:**

Let's Work Together **is the result of the** ***Team Teaching Publication Project*****, which was conducted during the 1989 Summer Workshop at the Language Institute of Japan. The purpose of the project was to provide team teachers with information and to promote cross-cultural understanding.**

We have included the pamphlet with ***Team Teaching—TNT: Trials and Tribulations or Dynamite*** **as a representative sample of contemporary Japanese approaches to team teaching.**

teed that both teachers truly shared the teaching load of each lesson and were committed to perform those tasks they had agreed to, since they had chosen freely based on their own particular abilities and interests. Thus, both teachers were assured a valid, important role in the classroom.

The End Result

The above would suggest that the Kamonomiya Project, after a few initial hurdles and rough spots, coasted efficiently along, churning out top-rate lessons with both teachers and students singing praises as they polished phrases. This was not the case. There were problems from the outset and some continued no matter how efficiently the teachers discussed and planned. Initially, there were questions concerning the use of Japanese in the classroom. One of the local instructors had very limited language skills and was uncomfortable when using the target language. As a result, lesson plans included basic notes with classroom directions worded in the simplest of English terms. The person concerned clearly spent hours translating the lesson plans, but still spent most of the classroom time uttering lengthy explanations in Japanese as the visiting teacher tried to talk around the problem in English. This use of Japanese at the expense of the target language was initially a problem, but open discussion with the local teachers resulted in three instructors taking the initiative, and even policing visiting teachers who slipped into Japanese. Unfortunately, the fourth local teacher decided to drop out of the project, to everyone's disappointment.

At the outset, problems were inevitable; however, perseverance, patience, and continued efforts to consider both teachers' points of view will produce results no matter how limited the visiting teacher's classroom skills or the local teacher's linguistic ability. This was particularly obvious in the Kamonomiya context where homeroom teachers, who were also present during each lesson, were able to stand in for the regular instructors in emergencies, even though the former were not bona fide language instructors and had limited knowledge of the target language.

Other problems were challenging, especially with regard to class discipline. The LIOJ teachers felt difficult students should be confronted directly, or at least counselled after class, whereas the Kamonomiya teachers believed it better to ignore such students, working around raucous or uncooperative behaviour in the hopes that time, peer pressure, and a non-threatening teacher would bring some of these individuals around. In some cases it did, and in others it did not. However, the wishes of the local teachers prevailed, since they were ultimately responsible for the classes and would have to live with subsequent difficulties that might arise from the use of different techniques introduced by visiting teachers.

Conclusion

Team-teaching arrangements in Japan will continue to grow over the coming years, and their success will depend upon a variety of factors. There is no best way to teach, and every group of students performs differently with varying results; however, the two teachers in charge of the situation can have a major impact on their students and their own personal growth if they have certain basic attitudes. The most important assets that any instructor can possess in a team-teaching context are flexibility, patience, and respect for one's partner.

Regarding flexibility, no lesson plan or teaching approach is without limitations and, as in any field, it is necessary to remain open to the suggestions of co-workers. Even if you feel the suggestions of your team-teaching partner to be inefficient or unproductive, at least give him or her a sincere audience and the opportunity to try out different ideas. The results may be enlightening.

Every teacher feels that he or she is a professional, advancing the students' linguistic skills—it is important to feel this way in order to do the job with dignity and confidence. However, when there are two people in charge, letting the other person have his or her way may require not just flexibility, but also a great deal of patience. Preconceived ideas about what should be going on in the classroom are hard to change, and it is only through repeated testing that these ideas can be proven or, if necessary, discarded. Both instructors have much to gain, not only in classroom experience and pedagogy, but, more importantly, in learning how to succeed in an interpersonal, cross-cultural working relationship.

Ultimately, every instructor is trying to do his or her best. By respecting each other's efforts, you can help create a team-teaching classroom in which all involved, and especially students, come out winners. ☐

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LANGUAGE & COMMUNICATION

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Editor: **ROY HARRIS,** *Department of English Studies and Comparative Literature, University of Hong Kong, Pokfulam Road, Hong Kong*

This journal is unique in that it provides a forum devoted to the discussion of topics and issues in communication which is of interdisciplinary significance. It publishes contributions from researchers on all fields relevant to the study of verbal and non-verbal communication. The investigation of language and its communicational functions are treated as a concern shared in common by those working in anthropology, the arts, artificial intelligence, education, ethology, linguistics, physiology, philosophy, psychology and the social sciences.

Emphasis is placed on the implications of current research for establishing common theoretical frameworks within which findings from different areas of study may be accommodated and interrelated.

By focusing attention on the many ways in which language is integrated with other forms of communicational activity and interactional behaviour, it is intended to explore ways of developing a science of communication which is not restricted by existing disciplinary boundaries.

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C GALLOIS & V J CALLAN (Australia), Communication accommodation and the prototypical speaker: predicting evaluations of status and solidarity.
E F PRINCE (USA), Accommodation theory and dialect shift: a case study from Yiddish.
I LEUDAR & P K BROWNING (UK), Meaning, maxims of communication and language games.
S CARPENTER & D C O'CONNELL (USA), More than meets the ear: some variables affecting pause reports.
R L ROSNOW, J L ESPOSITO & L GIBNEY (USA), Factors influencing rumor spreading: replication and extension.
M ARIEL (Israel), Female and male stereotypes in Irsaeli literature and media: evidence from introductory patterns.

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Approaches Toward Teaching Pronunciation: A Brief History

Janet Anderson-Hsieh

In the last twenty-five years, a revolution in language teaching methodology has occurred that has significantly affected both the status of pronunciation teaching in the ESL curriculum and the way pronunciation is taught. During the nineteen-fifties and sixties when the audiolingual method of teaching prevailed, pronunciation received a great deal of attention in the language teaching curriculum, and much time was spent drilling sounds to overcome native language habits and to achieve "automaticity" of pronunciation skills (Fries, 1945). This emphasis on pronunciation began to change during the late sixties at the time of the Chomskian revolution in linguistics. More importance began to be placed on communication and cognition in language learning, and a communicative-cognitive approach to second language teaching with much less emphasis on pronunciation began to evolve. This trend away from teaching pronunciation was reinforced by skepticism being expressed at the same time about the adult's ability to learn the pronunciation of a second language (Lenneberg, 1967; Scovel, 1969). By the mid-seventies, the pendulum had swung from the extreme emphasis on pronunciation of the audiolingual period to very little attention to pronunciation in the communicative-cognitive method as it was then evolving.

In the last few years, however, ESL professionals have begun to decry the neglect of pronunciation, and the pendulum is beginning to swing back. This renewed interest in teaching pronunciation is in part due to the needs of several groups of learners, identified by Morley (1987), who are in situations which demand highly effective oral communication. The most visible group in the United States is that of foreign graduate students now being asked to teach undergraduate courses in universities because of the diminishing number of U.S. students pursuing graduate degrees, particularly in the sciences and engineering. Another group identified by Morley, perhaps of interest to ESL teachers in Japan, is that of international business men and business women who need to use English as an international language.

However, while the pendulum has begun to swing back in the direction of more emphasis on pronunciation, it is swinging back in a different arc, and we are now at a very much different place than we were during the audiolingual period. The purpose of this essay is to describe the ways in which pronunciation teaching has changed since the audiolingual period, showing how the new approach to pronunciation contrasts with the older approach. In contrasting the two approaches, I will focus on the following questions.

1. What should the primary goal in teaching pronunciation be?
2. Which aspects of the sound system should be emphasized in the curriculum?
3. How should pronunciation be taught?
4. Who should be responsible for learning?
5. How can learning be best facilitated?

In answering these questions, I will draw on my own experiences as well as those of others who have published articles recently on the teaching of pronunciation, and who are,

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either explicitly or implicitly, using a communicative-cognitive teaching approach.

What should be the primary goal in teaching pronunciation?

The difference between the audiolingual and communicative-cognitive methods regarding the primary teaching goal lies mainly in the degree of mastery expected. Audiolingualism aimed at precise production of English sounds, rhythm, and intonation, as well as at automaticity of response (Fries, 1945). In other words, speaking correctly was not considered to be sufficient; the L-2 learner was expected to speak as naturally and fluently as a native speaker, even though the difficulties of acquiring such a high degree of proficiency were well known.

The goal for teaching pronunciation in the communicative-cognitive approach, on the other hand, is considerably more realistic: Intelligibility rather than native-like pronunciation is the expected learning outcome (Acton, 1984; Crawford, 1987). This scaling down of expectations is probably due to both the failure of the audiolingual method to deliver the expected results and to a greater understanding of the process of second language acquisition. Errors are now seen as a natural, inevitable part of learning a second language, and the difficulty of overcoming fossilized errors is much better appreciated. Thus, the aim in teaching pronunciation is not to eliminate all errors but to achieve a degree of accuracy sufficient to be understood.

What should be included in the pronunciation curriculum?

While both the audiolingual and communicative approaches advocate the teaching of segmentals (consonants and vowels) and suprasegmentals (stress, rhythm, intonation, and syllable structure), as well as connected speech phenomena, the emphasis in each approach is clearly different. The emphasis in the audiolingual approach was in overcoming segmental difficulties. Evidence for this can be found in the method's extensive use of minimal pair drills and the amount of time devoted to teaching consonants and vowels.

In the communicative-cognitive approach, on the other hand, there is almost universal agreement among its proponents that suprasegmentals should be central in teaching pronunciation (Catford, 1987; Crawford, 1987; Firth, 1987b; Gilbert, 1987; McNerny & Mendelson, 1987; Naiman, 1987; Pennington & Richards, 1986; and Wong, 1987). This is because it is felt that suprasegmentals are more critical for intelligibility than segmentals. Rhythm and intonation provide the framework for utterances as well as directing the listener's attention to important information in the discourse. Therefore, although it is felt that segmentals are certainly not irrelevant to communication, they should not be the focus in pronunciation teaching (Wong, 1987).

Yet in spite of the diminished emphasis on segmentals in current methodology, there is some agreement that phoneme-grapheme relationships need to be explained at some point in the curriculum, for very often students mispronounce sounds because of confusion over the spelling system. Since the English spelling system is not as chaotic as it appears to be at first glance, a few carefully chosen generalizations can be presented which should help clarify a good deal of the confusion over sound-spelling relationships (Dickerson & Finney, 1978; Kreidler, 1972).

Another difference in curriculum between the two methods can be found in the broader curriculum of the communicative-cognitive approach. While the pronunciation curriculum of the audiolingual method was strictly limited to the sound system, the communicative-cognitive approach to teaching pronunciation, as it is defined by the published work under review, allows material not normally allowed under the rubric of pronunciation. Speech phenomena outside the limits of phonology, such as voice quality (Esling & Wong, 1983), speaking rate and volume, as well as voice variety (Firth, 1987b; Archibald, 1987) are now being taught. Acton (1984) has even gone beyond speech in defining pronunciation, including in the curriculum gestures that accompany speech. Students are encouraged to imitate the gestures as well as the speech of the native speaker models they observe on videotape in the course he teaches for nonnative professionals.

How should pronunciation be taught?

The major difference between the two methods in the way pronunciation is taught is that while the audiolingual method relied almost exclusively on drills, the communicative-cognitive approach relies more on the use of communicative activities for practicing the sounds or sound patterns being learned. Naiman (1987) advocates using activities such as information gap exercises, chain stories, and role plays, which incorporate vocabulary containing the target sounds. Celce-Murcia (1987) uses communicative exercises almost completely excluding drill work of any kind. She argues that traditional drills are artificial and unauthentic, and that because students find them unmotivating, there is little transfer from practice to communication.

Another difference between the audiolingual and communicative-cognitive approaches to teaching pronunciation can be found in the greater concern for the learner's cognitive needs in the latter approach. This greater emphasis on cognition contrasts with the audiolingual method's emphasis on mechanical repetition, and manifests itself in more time spent on listening activities, exercises which increase speech awareness, and techniques that provide the learner with accurate feedback on performance.

The listening activities often include identification and discrimination exercises at the sentence and discourse levels as well as at the word level, and are presented either in conjunction with or preceding production exercises (Gilbert, 1987; Mendelson-Burns, 1987). At the same time, an effort is made to increase the student's speech awareness, providing clear perceptual targets through the student's auditory, visual and tactile senses. Auditorily, slow speech can be presented to give the student more time to process the linguistic input, as long as the teacher does not introduce extra pauses and preserves the normal rhythm and intonation (Catford, 1987; Jull, 1987). Visually, greater speech awareness can be taught by using a mirror or presenting diagrams of speech organs or intonation contours (Firth, 1987a). Finally, the teacher can exploit the student's tactile sense by guiding the student to feel the positions and movements of the articulators (Catford, 1987). In fact, the more senses the teacher exploits, the more likely the student is to achieve heightened awareness. The Japanese ESL learner might be well served by employing some of the above techniques for increasing speech awareness. For example, a mirror would be helpful to demonstrate English lip positions, which are unnatural for Japanese ESL learners (Crawford, 1987).

Also useful in heightening speech awareness are techniques that provide students with accurate feedback on their performance. The teacher can exploit the student's own auditory feedback mechanism through a technique known as *matching* (Elgin, 1987) in which the student speaks simultaneously with a native speaker model on tape. The instantaneous auditory feedback from the learner's own voice helps him/her to identify mismatches between his/her own voice and that of the speaker on tape.

Visual feedback can be provided through an electronic device that extracts pitch and intensity from the speech signal and displays the patterns on a video screen. A dual display allows the student to compare his/her own speech configurations to those of a native speaker model on the other half of the screen (Molholt, 1988). Both the auditory matching and visual feedback techniques are very helpful in teaching suprasegmentals as well as other aspects of pronunciation.

Who should be responsible for learning?

In the audiolingual method, it was felt that learning success was largely dependent on the materials and techniques employed by the teacher. The classroom was teacher-centered, the teacher acting as drill master and the students assuming a more passive role, obediently responding to the teacher's cues. It was the teacher, not the students, who initiated interactions and corrected errors. Students did not often spontaneously interact with other students or monitor their own speech.

In the communicative-cognitive method, on the other hand, responsibility for learning is placed clearly on the student. Teaching is much more student-centered, and cooperative learning techniques are often employed in which students are encouraged to correct each other's pronunciation errors. Self-monitoring of pronunciation errors, where students are taught how to listen for and correct errors in tape recordings of their own speech (Firth, 1987a; Morley, 1979), is also encouraged.

Students are also encouraged to exploit learning opportunities outside of class. In a pronunciation course for foreign professionals, Acton (1984) requires his students to use native speaker informants outside of class in completing their homework assignments, which might include compiling lists of technical terms from the native informants and taping their speech for later analysis.

How can learning be best facilitated?

An audiolingualist would probably have responded to this question by saying that the best way to facilitate learning is through the use of better and more "scientific" materials and procedures. The audiolingualist would probably have responded as such because success for learning was assumed to be dependent on method and materials, and because methods and materials were based on principles of structural linguistics and behaviorist psychology.

In the more learner-centered communicative-cognitive method, on the other hand, the approach for facilitating learning lies more in reducing the resistance *inside* the learner. This "inside-out" approach (Acton, 1984) involves addressing the psychological and cultural factors believed by many to be at least partly responsible for the block that many learners experience in learning pronunciation (Guiora, 1972; Lucas, 1984; Stevick, 1978). Providing a relaxed, non-threatening learning environment is considered to be the most important factor in reducing the learner's resistance. Techniques such as active listening (Acton, 1978) and relaxation and visualization (Anderson-Hsieh, 1987) can be helpful in achieving such an environment. When students feel relaxed and secure, they are more likely to take the necessary risks learning requires and to react positively to the whole experience of learning pronunciation. My firsthand experience in using active listening and relaxation in a course for foreign teaching assistants has been very positive. Students have reported feeling better predisposed to learning and less inhibited in speaking.

Conclusion

This brief survey of pronunciation literature indicates a major break from the audiolingual method. The most notable changes that have occurred are:

1. more realistic teaching objectives with intelligibility as the major goal;
2. a shift in focus from segmentals to suprasegmentals;
3. a broadening of the pronunciation curriculum and an integration of pronunciation with listening and speaking;
4. extensive use of communication activities for practicing pronunciation;
5. a greater concern for increasing the learner's speech awareness;
6. more responsibility placed on the students for their own learning through peer correction and self-monitoring;
7. addressing the learner's resistance to learning through cooperative learning techniques and relaxation.

What can be concluded from all of this for Japanese ESL learners with their concern for social harmony and "face," and their reservations about speaking? (Lucas, 1984). Probably the best approach to teaching pronunciation in Japan would be to make great use of cooperative learning techniques both for speaking and pronunciation practice as well as for peer monitoring. Active listening might work especially well for speaking and pronunciation practice. A good place to begin to teach the sound system, if the students have already had some English, would be the suprasegmentals, especially illustrating how to use intonation for information focus and contrast. Stress and intonation is where the greatest improvement in pronunciation is the most likely to occur, and any improvements the students make early in an instructional program will help build their confidence and better motivate them to learn. Finally, both the teacher and the students should have realistic expectations about eliminating segmental errors, with intelligibility rather than native pronunciation as the major goal. □

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Grammar: To Teach or Not To Teach?

Walter Hirtle

> Nothing is as easily overlooked, or as easily forgotten, as the most obvious truths. The tenet that language is a tool for expressing meaning is a case in point. Nobody would deny it—but many influential schools and trends in modern linguistics have ignored it and have based their work on entirely different and often incompatible assumptions.... Grammar in general, and syntax in particular, is seen as more or less autonomous of semantics, and can be pursued independently.... (Wierzbicka, 1988, p. 1)

Introduction

A fairly recent volume, *The Grammar Book: An ESL/EFL Teacher's Course*, which seems to have been well received in the field of English language teaching, aims at providing teachers with the knowledge of English grammar required for the average classroom. In their introduction, where the authors are trying to convince the reader of the importance of grammar—"You must have conscious knowledge of the rules of the English language" (Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman, 1983, p. 1)—they make the following assessment of the attitudes of teachers:

> Teachers of English seem to have a variety of reactions to the subject matter traditionally referred to as English grammar. Some have an aversion to it and whenever possible avoid either studying it or teaching it. Some others may feel indifferent yet believe it is necessary, and thus do what they can to understand it and present it effectively to their students. There are still other teachers who enjoy studying English grammar for its own sake and cheerfully accept the challenge of presenting it clearly and interestingly to their students. (Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman, 1983, pp. 1-2)

Because this description corresponds to the experience of most ESL teachers, it is probably accepted as quite commonplace. And yet if we pause to reflect on it we come to realize that it depicts quite an unusual, even startling, situation. Consider for a moment the other sectors of language teaching. Can one imagine a language teacher with such an aversion to, for example, the *sounds* of English as to avoid studying or teaching them? What sort of English teacher would be indifferent to the *vocabulary* of English? Such attitudes would be unthinkable, and yet for most teachers grammar is an object of either aversion or indifference. At the very best they cheerfully accept the challenge of teaching grammar, as though it were a dose of unpleasant medicine which is good for both teacher and student. It is not difficult to imagine the effect of such attitudes on students and on the learning of grammar. Nor is it difficult to understand why grammar teaching is so often abandoned, if not right at the beginning, then as soon as decently possible after the introductory course. And yet many teachers, like the authors of *The Grammar Book: An ESL/EFL Teacher's Course*, are convinced that it is important and even necessary to teach grammar.

The intent of the remarks that follow is to point out that this widespread situation is by no means inevitable, and to show not only that grammar can be taught in such a way as to stimulate students' interest in English and to aid their ability to express themselves and to

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communicate, but that it can even be made interesting for teachers. In order to make these points, however, we must first try to discern the root of the situation described above by the authors of *The Grammar Book: An ESL/EFL Teacher's Course*.

Language as a Means of Communication

A key to language as a means of communication is provided by the sentence quoted above where it is implicitly assumed that grammar consists of a finite set of rules: "[Teachers] must have conscious knowledge of the rules of the English language." The consequence of teaching grammar on this assumption is well known to most teachers. Not long after giving a rule for the use of a form we must introduce another rule, generally as an exception to the first, soon to be followed by other rules, exceptions to the exception. And yet not even the most elaborate of rule-based grammars manages to provide a complete description of how we use the simple form of the verb, or of the progressive, or the perfect, or the articles, or any of the other forms we try to teach. In short, the ramifications of a rule-based approach become so complicated and involved that neither student nor teacher can keep all the conflicting rules in mind and so the venture is sooner or later abandoned. If we pause to analyze this scenario, we are led to one inescapable conclusion: Rules do not provide a satisfactory basis for teaching the complexities of usage. This conclusion naturally leads us to question the assumption that grammar is a set of rules. What is this rule-based conception of grammar based on?

The answer to this question would appear to be a very simple one: The conception of grammar as a set of rules is based on the widespread view that language is nothing more than a means of communication. Since we communicate by means of discourse—of sentences—it follows from this view not only that language is a set of sentences, but also that grammar is sentence-based, and is essentially a matter of syntax, consisting of the correlations observed between different elements in the sentence. These relations are generally described by means of rules, the type of rule depending upon the entities related. Because of this, a sentence-based view of grammar leads directly to the classroom situation depicted above, where teacher and student are bound up in an inextricable tangle of rules and exceptions, to the detriment both of the teaching and learning processes and of the student's resulting ability to communicate. Thus it appears that the ultimate cause of the predicament of grammar teaching lies in an assumption about the nature of language, an assumption which has given rise to the type of linguistic analysis implicit in most teaching manuals.

Before we explore an alternative assumption, one giving rise to a different type of linguistic analysis, let us briefly reflect on the present relation between linguistics and language teaching, since this is where our analysis has led us. On the one hand, we observe a flourishing linguistics industry whose production of grammatical studies is on the increase. Hardly a year goes by without some new model of grammar arriving on the market. On the other hand, in the language classroom where, one would think, grammatical theory should find its most immediate and widespread application, we are confronted with the situation described above in *The Grammar Book: An ESL/EFL Teacher's Course*. Surely there is a problem here. Is it too much to expect of linguistic theoreticians that they should produce grammars that are of some use in the language classroom? What is the validity of a theory of grammar which is not applicable to real language, or at least to the reality of the language we try to teach in the classroom? Such questions should trouble the linguist more than they do and should be raised by the grammar teacher more often than they are. As for the middleman between the two, the so-called "applied linguist," the "expert" in language teaching who writes the manuals and organizes the teacher training programs, he seems to be blissfully unaware that his often unanalyzed assumptions about the nature of language are largely responsible for the way grammar is taught today.

Language as a Means of Representation and Expression

Let us get back to our more immediate concern: finding a way out of the classroom dilemma, which we have traced from rules back through a sentence-based type of grammar to its root in the underlying conception of language as a means of communication. The next step in our considerations is to move beyond the inadequacy of this conception of language and suggest a more adequate one. The point here is not that this conception is false—quite obviously language *is* a means of communication—but that it is incomplete and reductionist, and that it leaves out an essential part of the reality of language.

This point can perhaps best be made by observing that communication itself involves more than a means: It necessarily involves what is communicated, a message. "The human speaker, unlike the communication system, does not merely transmit the message; he also creates it," as Palmer (1986, p. 16) remarks. This is obvious, but what is not so obvious is that language provides, besides a means of communicating a message, a way of *thinking* the message to be communicated. Unless we take into account the fact that an act of language involves both *thinking* what we want to communicate and *using the physical means of communicating it*—both *representation* and *expression*—our view of language will be reductionist and our teaching of grammar inadequate.

To avoid any misunderstanding of this fundamental point, let it be said that language does not provide the message: It is our *experience* of reality which gives rise to the endlessly varied subjects whereof we can discourse. Our language intervenes to permit us to *think* the content of our experience by means of words, to *represent* what we want to communicate in such a way that it can be *expressed* through sentences. The important point here is that without this translation from experience to mental representation, human language could not be a means of communication, because every person's experience is absolutely individual, singular, unique; individual experience, be it immediate, remembered or imagined, can be communicated to others only if it has something in common with the experience of others, only if it can be seen in a more general, categorical framework. Therefore, if language provides a means of communicating the content of our experience, it must also provide the means of converting experience into that more general, categorical framework.

This enlarged assumption concerning the nature of human language avoids the reductionism of the view examined above and ensures a more adequate basis for the teaching of grammar, as we shall now see. In this enlarged view, grammar is no longer seen as simply a matter of relationships in a sentence—as syntax—but also, and even primarily, as part of the representational mechanism involved in *thinking* a word. Grammar helps to render the message, and so is rooted in the semantic part of language, contributing to the content or meaning. It is not, of course, the role of grammar to render all the meaning involved—the lexicon represents the notional content or matter of the message—but rather to render the way we *think* the notional content of a word, its semantic form. (For example, one need merely think of how a given notion is thought differently in the singular and the plural of a noun, or how the progressive and the simple of a verb provide different ways of thinking an event.) Thus grammar should be viewed primarily as a means of representation, of thinking and categorizing, before it is a means of expression, of communication.

Viewing grammar as first and foremost a matter of providing categorical meanings leads to a very different way of accounting for usage in discourse. The grammarian is no longer limited to a surface or syntactic view of usage but now can appeal to another dimension—that of the meaning which the grammatical form represents on the sentence level. Once this point of view is adopted, it can be seen that what governs the use or non-use of a grammatical form is its meaning. In other words, one can account for usage with all its constraints and possibilities by examining the relation between the meaning of a form and the message to be expressed. The moment one gets beyond the reductionist view of language as merely a means of communication and adopts the more comprehensive view that language also provides a categorical representation of what is to be communicated, then grammar can be taught on the basis of meaning, the fundamental factor governing usage.

An example at this point may help to clarify what has just been said. A number of grammatical studies (e.g. Hirtle & Curat, 1986) have suggested that the progressive form is an "imperfective," that its underlying meaning is an impression of imperfectivity, of something incomplete: It is an event that can be added to. This meaning has provided an invaluable basis for teaching the use of the form. Students readily understand that we use the progressive for most "activities going on at the moment of speaking," as the grammar books say, because most such activities are seen by the speaker as incomplete at the moment. They can soon be brought to see why we do not use it to express a habit or a performative action which goes on at the moment of speaking, and why it is infrequent with the verbs of perception, or with *to be*, *to know*, and the like. As their grasp of English deepens, they can appreciate the nuance of meaning brought in by the progressive when such verbs are actually used in the progressive. This increasing sensitivity to the expressive effects of the form, which can be carried to the point where it approaches that of a native speaker, provides the passive awareness necessary for more and more subtle use, and for increasingly effective communication.

This example (cf. Hirtle, 1988 for another example) illustrates an important consequence for teaching, namely that one cannot introduce a form and its meaning, give a few exercises to illustrate the meaning and consider the form taught. Our paraphrases of grammatical meaning are at best approximate descriptions, clumsily evoking a very general impression which can be exploited in many different ways. As a consequence, the teaching of a form like the progressive can never be considered to be finished since every new context offers the possibility of a new interpretation of the general impression constituting its meaning. Hence once a form has been introduced, it must be revisited regularly to introduce the student to ever-widening circles of usage, all centered on the underlying impression. This examination of the uses of a form in carefully ordered contexts is most effective when the form is compared with another form to bring out the expressive nuance it contributes to the meaning of the sentence. Although it takes time and effort, this type of teaching shows students how speakers of English have used the form to represent their experience, and puts them in a position to do likewise because it relates the form to impressions arising from similar categories of their own experience.

One big advantage of this meaning-based approach is that it is more economical than the rule-based approach. Rather than appeal to rules, which are as varied and as numerous as the contexts in which a form is used, one can always appeal to the one underlying meaning. As a result it is possible to lead students through the complexities of usage without confusion and contradiction, because there is a single guiding principle in all cases. In fact, as one progresses to more surprising cases of usage, the study of grammar becomes more interesting, because it is always a challenge to discern how the underlying impression can account for some apparently contradictory use. What, for example, is the relation between an impression of imperfectivity and the use of the progressive in *I am seeing stars*, or *We are going to Spain for our holidays this year*, or *It was being a successful party*?

In the final analysis, the difficulty with the rule-based approach is that it is concerned with the results of acts of language—sentences—and so is descriptive by nature. A meaning-based approach, on the other hand, attempts to present the meaning of a form as such, independent of its use in any given context, and thus as what motivates its use. This approach is therefore explanatory by nature. A set of rules describing discourse can never be complete, since discourse itself is unlimited, and can be acquired only by an effort of memory, at best a fastidious task; by contrast, the application of an explanatory principle calls on the intellect, the exercise of which most students find stimulating. As a consequence, the former approach leads to the early abandoning of grammar teaching, whereas the latter approach invites students to tackle more and more challenging problems as they progress. Indeed, from the point of view of meaning-based grammar, it is certainly not far-fetched to regard the teaching of grammar as a means of furthering students' intellectual development.

Conclusion

Grammar: to teach or not to teach? The answer will depend upon one's conception of language. If a person is content to take language at its face value as a means of communication—as discourse—and grammar as a rule-bound component based on sentences, then grammar is of limited value in the classroom and should probably be taught very little, if at all. This option, of course, foists off on students the whole task of discerning the conditions governing usage and may even suggest to them that teachers are ignorant of these conditions.

If, on the other hand, we are prepared to make the effort of viewing language as both a means of *representation* and of *expression*, then grammar will be seen as the meaning-forming part of language, as a "systematic whole englobing the entire range of what is thinkable," to quote Gustave Guillaume (1984, p. 104). From this point of view, not only can grammar teaching develop and refine students' appreciation of nuances expressed in discourse, thereby enabling them to develop their own competence, but it can also provide an occasion for exercising the students' intellect. It should therefore be fostered and encouraged particularly at intermediate and advanced levels where students can derive maximum benefits from it.

For teaching, it would seem preferable to regard grammar as an integrated system of abstract mental forms rather than an apparently arbitrary set of rules concerning usage. ☐

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Learning English on Stage

Glenn T. Gainer, William Lee, and Brenda Lee

As linguists have shifted their focus from language as grammatical structure to language as communicative action, teachers have turned more and more to drama techniques like role-playing, information-gaps, and pantomime to present language in its full social richness and complexity. Richard Via (1976) argues further that play *production*, in addition to presentation, offers concrete benefits to language learners:

> A play can give us a good picture of language in its socio-cultural environment and show us how the situation affects the language.... A play is written for communication between actor and actor and audience and actor. The drama method offers a chance for the student to use and understand the language at the gut level. (p. 9)

Obviously, both preparation and performance of drama can be used effectively in the language classroom. The performance goal gives the preparation activities definition and focus: The students know what they are expected to accomplish, they concentrate their efforts on gradual but constant progress, and the emotional climax of the performance provides a sense of achievement. The final performance, where students successfully deliver a few well-memorized lines of normal English before an audience, gives students a great deal of confidence in their ability to produce comprehensible English.

This dual preparation/performance approach to drama in the English classroom moves English beyond an object of study, and makes it also the medium of instruction. Language use remains always concretely functional, rather than abstractly formal, and it takes place in an enriched conceptual context that facilitates comprehension (Widdowson, 1978).

In his introduction to Via (1976), Mark Lester calls attention to this "double-barreled" effect, noting that:

> The play provides one kind of exposure to the natural communicative use of language while the use of English in the preparation of the play provides a second kind. In order to talk, you have to talk about something. For Via, the play has the double function of being both an end in itself and topic for discussion and analysis which is deeply involving to the participants. (pp. xiv-xv)

By approaching drama as both preparation *and* presentation, therefore, the students use English in several ways. They grasp the meaning of the plays, listen for their cues, understand and carry out directions concerning their speech and movement, and deliver a final English performance. It is a well-rounded approach to English language learning.

Background

In early 1987, we were asked to design curriculum for a three day, summer intensive language course for freshman English majors at Fukuoka University. After considering several possible approaches, we decided on the drama workshop format. At this writing, we have just completed our second drama workshop, and we were very pleased with the results. In this paper we will share our backstage perspectives with those interested in

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using drama in either an intensive or a regular language course.

Preparation

Between fifty and one hundred students usually attend our drama workshop. We divide them into three or four groups roughly equal in number.

Because performing in front of an audience of peers and teachers can produce considerable anxiety, we compose our own short scripts, incorporating features that help audience comprehension and virtually guarantee successful student performance. We use strong, simple narrative lines. *Used Cars*, for instance, documents a frustrating day in the life of a used car salesman which culminates in the theft of a car. *Fed Up*, relates the story of a waitress who quits her job after a series of exasperating incidents. The acting parts range in difficulty, but most students have an average of five or six short lines. Even the weakest students are able to memorize a part of this length during the two days of rehearsals. With a cast of fifteen to twenty-five, that makes for about a ten minute play. We use contemporary, colloquial English with simple syntax, limited vocabulary, and frequent repetition. This conversation from the play *Town Meeting* is perhaps an extreme example:

> "Well, I'm glad we're going to have a playground."
> "A *playground*?"
> "A playground for children?"
> "Yeah, a playground. I hear the field's going to be a playground."

Note that this sequence can be spoken by two, three, or four speakers. Since we never know exactly how many people will attend until rehearsals actually begin, the plays are designed to accommodate an indeterminate cast. In crowd scenes, for example, lines can be easily supplemented or redistributed. Likewise, groupings of discrete vignettes can be quickly trimmed or expanded.

Each play employs a minimum of props and costumes—just enough to help the audience understand what is happening on stage. We use chairs to represent used cars on a lot, signboards as restaurant menus, cassette recordings for sound effects, talcum powder for white hair, water pistols, and so forth.

In the event we are using the drama workshop in conjunction with a regular class, we give minimal in-class preparation before the event begins. We introduce vocabulary like *script*, and *prop*, hand out the scripts to players with the most demanding roles, and consult students about any anticipated problems like whether they'd mind getting hit in the face with a pie. As much as possible, however, we try to keep the drama workshop separate from our regular class work.

Rehearsals and Performances

Our first meeting at the intensive-setting workshop takes place on the evening of the first day. Each teacher meets with a group to hand out scripts, read the play aloud, and explain the background and any unfamiliar expressions. The students underline their individual parts, and read through the entire play a few times. These initial readings are often flat, hesitant, and barely audible, but we praise the work, as we expect them to improve gradually over the course of the rehearsals. The closest we come to criticizing any reading is to model the line ourselves; our exaggerated gestures, volume, and expressions serve equally to correct, to lighten the mood, and to help the students realize they will be playing to an audience, not to each other. The first meeting takes about two hours. When it is finished, the students go off to prepare their lines and gestures for the next day's rehearsal.

On the second day, the students set up the rehearsal space with classroom furniture to represent the set. Next, they read their lines through several times, using Via's *talk and listen*, or *read and then speak*, technique: Students read lines silently, then speak them looking at the person to whom it is addressed. We do not worry if the readings are less than perfect, because the plays are short enough to allow gradual improvement through frequent rehearsal. After the students can read their lines fairly fluently, we go over stage blocking, and the students read through the play several more times, now accompanying their readings with appropriate movements and gestures. Japanese faculty members videotape these sessions for the students to observe later. They also act as surrogate audiences, giving objective comments, thus allowing the directors to participate in the group work, rather than judge it.

We then break each cast up into smaller groups to rehearse individual scenes or work on props. Usually, by the end of the first three hour rehearsal session, the students have memorized the play and can get through their lines, entrances, exits, and gestures without their scripts. After the morning session, the students are free until evening, when they have language games and other activities. Students use this time to rehearse or to relax.

On the morning of the third day, we rehearse for another three hours, working on smoother coordination of speech and gesture, more graceful entrances and exits, and more fluid dialogue transitions. When each group is ready, it takes its turn on the stage for a dress rehearsal with curtain, props, and simple costumes. In these dress rehearsals, the students perform their plays from beginning to end, regardless of any mistakes or forgotten lines. We do not use prompters because we have noticed that prompters constitute a self-fulfilling prophecy: Speakers know the prompter is there and tend to rely on him or her; and the prompter tends to pitch in without allowing speakers adequate time to recall the original line or ad-lib an alternative. We stress the importance of staying in character, no matter what happens.

The final rehearsals are usually the low point of the workshop, as tables collapse, signs fall down, and actors flub lines that they had previously mastered. At this point, we remind each other that the students have already learned a lot of English, and that the performances themselves are only secondary.

Throughout the rehearsals, we encourage the students to speak loudly and clearly, but we emphasize fluency, confidence, emotive conviction, and enjoyment, rather than native-like pronunciation. Since the students see us as play directors encouraging a cast to put forth its best effort, rather than as teachers pointing out mistakes, our coaching does not intimidate them as classroom correction often does; quite the reverse, it builds their confidence. Moreover, because the plays are so short, it is usually unnecessary to single out a student for individual drill. Instead, we make general suggestions—"Okay, now let's make the gestures broader [grand sweep of the arm] so the people in the back can see clearly"—and run through the entire play again. Each time everyone gets a little better and, without realizing it, has memorized the lines a little more. The more relaxed and confident the students become, the more they give lines personal interpretation. They also begin introducing gestures and stage directions, and suggesting revisions.

Since ninety per cent of the students have had no previous drama experience, it is difficult for them to realize how softly they speak. To overcome their normal tendency to project as little as possible when speaking English, we ask observing faculty to sit at a distance and raise their hands when they cannot understand, or we have students take turns listening in the audience. One long-term benefit of this practice is many students' eagerness to project whenever they subsequently speak English.

Although the final performance itself is actually secondary as far as language learning is concerned, it is extremely important in the structure of the learning experience. It strikes a note of closure for students and faculty alike.

The performances take place on the evening of the third day, before an audience of faculty and workshop students. All the performances are videotaped. The students invariably do an outstanding job performing the plays. Of all the run-throughs we watch, the actual performances are always the best. We feel this is because the students who still feel slightly inhibited in the group rehearsals polish their lines and their gestures in small groups between the dress rehearsal and the performance itself. A live audience gives the performers just the juice they need. The lines are for the most part spoken clearly, smoothly, and in some cases, quite dramatically. There are of course some mistakes; however, when these occur, the students are usually confident enough to improvise. For example, once a speaker forgot her line in mid-speech, but persevered until she got it out. Since the play called for her to be speaking excitedly, her hesitation and repetition were perceived as dramatic, not as mistakes. In another case, a student forgot a line that was a cue for an important spoken stage direction. When the next speaker realized that her cue was not forthcoming, she went ahead and spoke her line, and the play proceeded. In a sense, the students' mistakes and resourcefulness in coping with them show how well they have learned. They never break down or lose the thread of the drama. They cover their mistakes so well that no one notices but themselves.

Although it is difficult for students who have just completed their performance, or who are about to give one, to concentrate on the play they are watching, the students do show respect for others' efforts. They listen attentively, applaud enthusiastically, and congratulate their fellow students earnestly. After the performances, those faculty members who have not directed plays meet to judge the performances and hand out awards. We are generous with awards. We want to make as many students as possible feel their achievement has been recognized, without giving out so many that they become meaningless, or that people feel slighted if they do *not* receive an award. Each student receives a certificate of participation. One play is chosen as the best all-around performance, and individuals receive ***Best Actor, Best Actress, Best Supporting Actor***, and ***Best Supporting Actress*** awards. Each director also selects one student for a *Most Improved* award. After the awards ceremony, the students gather to watch their own performances on the videotape. This is an especially valuable experience for them, as they can see for the first time the fruits of their labor.

Reflections

One of the major benefits of the workshop is the fact that we teachers get to learn a lot about the students. Undergoing the tensions, frustrations, and hard work together, we establish a great *esprit de corps*, and find that many students were unimpressive in class only because they were never pushed to their limits before. It is impossible to overemphasize the sense of accomplishment that we share with our students.

In addition, we see how individual contributions combine to form a whole greater than its parts. As aliens in Japanese society, we often notice the stifling effects of groupism, though we rarely participate in its gratifications. In the workshop, we not only learn about our students individually, we learn something about them in their social relations with one another. These social benefits are difficult for us to appreciate within the confines of the normal classroom. Similarly, it is easier for the freshmen to recognize us—in some cases the first non-Japanese they have ever spoken with—as approachable human beings.

When we asked the students to evaluate the workshop, one student's response, if not quite grammatical, summed up what we hope the workshop's value is for all: "I found the other myself, but I think it might be the real me." □

Authors' Note

The authors will send copies of plays they have written to other teachers interested in the drama workshop approach to English language teaching.

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Conversational Crutches in the Classroom

Keith Maurice

Communication patterns vary greatly from culture to culture and yet certain basic elements in communication are shared across cultures. One element that seems common throughout the world, though the degree of its use and appreciation may vary greatly, is the use of conversational fillers or hesitation devices, here called conversational crutches. Some English crutches are *uh, um, eh, well, OK, right, I mean*, and *you know*.

In English, people who use conversational crutches frequently are sometimes seen as lacking in social grace and/or intelligence. In fact, these devices are called *crutches* here because their use in English is sometimes tinged with negative overtones. Nevertheless, most people in English speaking societies use crutches occasionally, and some groups—teenagers, athletes, and popular musicians, for example—use them frequently. In other cultures however, Japan for example, the use of similar expressions is often seen as a normal and quite acceptable way of maintaining the appropriate mood of a conversation. What is seen as a handicap in one culture may be seen as an accepted norm in another.

In English, where the conversational crutches noted above are seen negatively, more complex devices, called gambits (Keller, 1981) or conversational management strategies (Kramsch, 1981), are sometimes used for the same effect. Thus, where a teenager might say, "Well, uh, you know, I mean...," using four separate hesitation devices, a more sophisticated language user—a politician, for example—might say, "Well, as far as I'm concerned, the fact of the matter is...," replacing some of the simple crutches with more high-sounding phrases.

Coulmas (1981) cites an interesting study by Sorhus on the use of hesitation words in spontaneous Canadian speech. Of the 130,000 words studied, about twenty percent were hesitation words. She concluded that the use of such words gave speakers time to find the right words for their ideas, and served as fillers for uncomfortable silences in conversation. Richards (1985) estimates that thirty to fifty percent of natural speech may be filled with pauses and hesitation devices. Richards also notes that such expressions as *you see* and *you know* are sometimes used as solidarity markers, which make interaction more informal and friendly. For example, the U.S. expression *you know* may also serve as an indicator of shared experience or as an attempt to gain listener support for what is being said. Finally, Sajavaara and Lehtonen (1978) studied perceived fluency in native and non-native speakers and found that natives spoke with more fillers than non-natives. Non-native speakers on the other hand, unfamiliar with conversational crutches, mostly used pauses and repetitions to compensate for trouble spots in their own conversational skills.

Implications from studies such as these would seem to suggest that some of the sloppy speech patterns that English teachers typically dislike may, in fact, have some usefulness in daily communication.

For teachers, this is a messy area to pursue; few teachers want to assist students to speak poorly. However, because conversational crutches are so common, because their use

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fulfills certain purposes in English communication, and because their misuse may sometimes trigger strong responses or feelings by the conversational partner, looking directly at these devices may be worthwhile for our students. The aim is certainly not to train students to use conversational crutches all the time, but rather to help students become more aware of what they are, how they are used and by whom, and where they are appropriate and not appropriate.

Using Crutches in Class

What follows is one cluster of techniques for dealing with conversational crutches. The steps are not lock-step by any means and can be rearranged to fit differing situations.

Step One:

Introduce conversational crutches; mention their frequency, significance in communication, and relevance in the classroom.

Step Two:

Introduce a listening or reading passage which exemplifies crutches. One example, taken from an American radio program a few years ago, illustrates:

> American sportscaster Keith Olbermann is intrigued by the conversational crutches used by athletes, especially the crutch *you know*. He was so interested, in fact, that a few years ago, he organized the Official *You Know* Sanctioning Board to monitor the *you know*'s of the athletes and to publicly recognize the champions of this conversational crutch. Baseball player Mike Easler is the present champion based on a 29 second answer to a question in which he said *you know* 16 times (.551 *you know*'s per second).
>
> His record-breaking answer came in answer to this question: "The Braves have beaten you two straight, Mike. Are you guys in a slump?" Easler then responded: "I think, *you know*, the guys are, *you know*, we're playing hard. *you know*, we're playing, *you know*, we're going out there giving everything we've got—I know I am, and I know the other guys are, *you know*. It's just sometimes, *you know*, you get guys that's hot like Matthews, he's swinging the bat real good this series, *you know*, and these guys been throwing good ball games. You get a guy like Niekro, I mean, *you know*, and they can pitch, *you know*, and these guys come against us, *you know*, they just love to knock off a pennant contender like us, *you know*, and, *you know*, they're just loosey-goosey, *you know*, they just go out there and just, *you know*, just try to bury us, *you know*, but the thing is we're playing our type of baseball, *you know*, and the breaks been going their way." (Olbermann, adapted by the author)

Step Three:

Discuss conversational crutches. The following is a brief outline for classroom discussion.

1. What are some other conversational crutches in English? (See the first page of this paper.)
2. What are some conversational crutches in your own language? (In Japanese, some crutches are *ano*, *neh*, and *mm*.)
3. What types of people use English conversational crutches frequently? (Answers to this question might include teenagers, popular musicians, athletes, and embarrassed people.)
4. What type of people do *not* use conversational crutches frequently? (Answers to this question might include highly educated people who sometimes speak more precisely and sometimes substitute gambits for the simpler crutches.)
5. Do you often use crutches in your own

language? Why or why not?

6. In what kinds of situations do people tend to use crutches more frequently than normal? (Answers might include embarrassing situations, situations where we are struggling to find the right words to express ourselves, situations in which we're trying to find excuses.)
7. What are some common nonverbal crutches? (Answers might include holding a cigarette, holding a glass at a party, stroking one's face, putting one's hands in one's pockets.)
8. What is the danger of using conversational crutches too often? (One danger is that people will think you are not very intelligent. Another is that using them as solidarity markers without native proficiency can make the speaker sound very artificial. Yet another is that using them too much in the wrong context can alienate one's conversational partner.)

Step Four:

Listen to one or more conversations and count the crutches heard. Alternately, the students could listen to the conversation while looking over a script with the crutches omitted and then note where the crutches fall.

Step Five:

Introduce different situations in which conversational crutches are common, and ask the students to develop role plays around these situations. Examples might include:

1. Interview an athlete who has just won or lost an important game.
2. Interview a rock musician about his music.
3. Pose a variety of embarrassing situations:
    a. A man comes home to his angry wife at 3:00 A.M. with lipstick smeared on his face. His wife questions him.
    b. An office worker is three weeks behind in his work. His boss is very impatient and wants to know why.
    c. A shy young man wants to ask a young woman out on a date but doesn't know how exactly to ask her.

Step six:

Summarize the lesson with a discussion which includes cautions about abusing conversational crutches.

Final Remarks

Conversational crutches are used by many native English speakers and it seems wise to help ESL students become more aware of them. With awareness and selective use, students can learn to use crutches appropriately and successfully. □

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Cautionary Notes on Oral Language Testing

Scott Petersen

With the increasing popularity of communicative language teaching, teachers are becoming conscious that testing should try to measure the abilities promoted by this new approach. They reject paper-and-pencil methods of testing because they do not look like tests of oral skills. English teachers in Japan especially want to test the development of oral skills, and many formats for testing oral skills now exist (see Underhill, 1987). However, before embarking upon an oral testing program, teachers should consider a number of pitfalls in the construction of oral tests.

In this paper, I will outline the basics of test construction and then indicate the pitfalls that await the test maker. I will discuss the pitfalls in two parts: those associated with proficiency testing, and those associated with achievement testing. I will then briefly discuss some alternatives to these methods of testing.

Test Construction: Back to Basics

A test is a measuring instrument, and thus has certain characteristics in common with many other measuring instruments. One testing expert (Garrett, 1966) likens a test to a clock, an instrument which is more or less accurate according to type and care in construction. An old-fashioned pocket watch, for instance, measures less accurately than an atomic clock. Of course, most people conclude that for their needs a less accurate, inexpensive watch will suffice. Similarly, some tests are more accurate than others. Most teachers, in balancing the need for an extremely accurate test against the time and effort needed to produce such an instrument, conclude that they can be satisfied with a less accurate test if it gives them adequate information.

Given the inaccuracy of testing, how then can we develop a good test? First, we have to know what it is we want to measure. Then we have to decide how we are going to measure it. Finally, in order to guard against being sidetracked in going from the first step to the second, we have to check to see that we have measured what we set out to measure.

Over the years testing experts have evolved quite an elaborate methodology for the checking phase of test development. In checking to make sure that one has in fact measured what one set out to measure, one needs to consider the following two questions: "Are the scores produced by this test valid for the purpose(s) for which I am using it?" and, "Are the scores produced by this test reliable, that is, consistent?" (Cronbach, 1984, pp. 125-6). Answering the former question is determining test validity; answering the latter, determining test reliability (see Clark, 1979; Henning, 1987; Keitges, 1982; Nitko, 1983; Ogasawara, 1987; Pearson, 1984; Underhill, 1987, for discussion).

I would like to point out two things concerning the preceding definitions. One, validity is related to the *purpose* for using a test, not to the test itself. Two, reliability is related to the *interpretation* of scores, again not to the test itself (American Psychological Association, American Educational Research Association & National Council of Measurement in Education, 1984). However, the important

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consideration of test *construction* is the scores which will result: These scores will provide the information which can be interpreted. In terms of test *construction*, the issue is not the *checking phase* of validity and reliability, it is the first two phases, *defining the trait* and *testing the trait*, which attempt to gather enough information to allow interpretation about the examinees. In this paper, therefore, I will limit myself to these issues and their problems.

Pitfalls

The process of test construction will differ slightly depending on whether one is doing proficiency or achievement testing. Proficiency tests attempt to measure general ability. They answer the question: Do the examinees have sufficient ability in the language to do *X*? *X* refers to some activity such as shopping or negotiating a treaty. One example of a proficiency test is the TOEFL (Test Of English as a Foreign Language). Achievement tests attempt to measure learning. They answer the question: What learning has occurred during the course of study? Examples of this type are the end-of-course tests that teachers in Japan are usually expected to administer. A proficiency test might also be administered at the beginning and again at the end of a course. The difference in scores could be noted and counted as a measure of learning. This is another form of achievement testing.

Each of these tests presents different problems in terms of test construction. I will first discuss proficiency test problems and then achievement test problems.

Proficiency Tests

Defining the trait

The very first pitfall arises when trying to define what it is that one wishes to test. If one is operating within the framework of communicative language learning, one probably uses some concept of communicative ability. Unfortunately, scholars have yet to come to any agreement about what *communicative ability* means. For example, Schulz (1986) reports on a Language Proficiency Symposium held in 1981, where participants were unable to arrive at any conclusion concerning a definition. At one extreme she cites Burt, Dulay and Hernandez-Chavez (1975), who posit sixty-four components to communicative ability. At the other extreme she cites Oller and Perkins (1980) who posit only one component.

One way of defining communicative ability involves using the term *communicative competence*. However, trying to define this concept in concrete terms has also proven difficult. Canale (1983) presents one widely-used formulation of the concept. He breaks the concept down into four competencies: grammatical, sociolinguistic, discourse, and strategic. Grammatical competence produces grammatically correct utterances; sociolinguistic competence produces socially correct utterances; discourse competence produces conversationally correct utterances; and strategic competence makes up for any deficiencies in the other abilities.

To be sure, this is not the sole definition of communicative competence. Oller (1986) objects to the componential view of language inherent in the Canale schema, maintaining that language is much too complex to be reduced to such a check list (see Standfield, 1986; Angelis & Henderson, 1989; Brumfit, 1987, for discussion).

Many teachers in Japan and elsewhere might consider all this theorizing pedantic, having little applicability to a teacher's everyday world. They would be perfectly satisfied with this more practical definition: Communicative ability is "the ability to send and comprehend appropriate messages in different real life situations" (Schulz, 1986, p. 374).

However, consider this example. At a party in Melbourne for a visiting Japanese professor about to return to Japan, a young Australian woman, who had just returned from Japan, asked the professor, "*Anata, moo kaeru no?*" (Neustupny, 1982, p. 107). A translation that captures the same level of appropriateness might be, "Hey, you goin' back already?" This response *does* get the message across, but it is inappropriate for the situation.

Other teachers may try to focus their testing on fluency. However, defining this term is no less problematic than defining communicative competence, because it also needs to be defined in a way that can be measured. Fulcher (1987) describes an experiment in which he recorded a conversation between native speakers of English. He then tried to analyze it using the trait of fluency as described in the Carroll rating scale (Carroll & Hall, 1985). The three factors defining fluency are hesitation, repetition, and stumbling. Fulcher found that the conversation was full of hesitations, repetitions and stumbling. He concluded that measured against the Carroll scale, the native speakers fared rather poorly.

The reasons that the above definitions of communicative ability attract teachers is because they eschew an overemphasis on grammatical accuracy in judging speaking ability. However much one may agree with such definitions, excusing the use of inappropriate language makes for rather egregious mistakes, and defining fluency so that native speakers appear nonfluent provides inaccurate measurement.

As can be seen from the discussion above, defining what one is going to test in oral language testing is quite difficult. In the next section, I will illustrate the difficulty of writing a test based on a definition of communicative competence. I will take one dimension of Canale's communicative competence—the social—and identify the difficulty of incorporating that particular trait in a test.

Testing the trait

The dimension I would like to examine is Canale's *sociolinguistic competence*.

> Sociolinguistic competence...addresses the extent to which utterances are produced and understood *appropriately* in different sociolinguistic contexts depending on contextual factors such as status of participants, purposes of the interaction, and norms or conventions of interaction.... (Canale, 1983, p. 7)

What this means is that factors such as *who* is talking to whom, *where* they are talking, or the *way* people are expected to interact in a given situation will affect the appropriateness of any conversation. An example of a violation of appropriateness would be a waiter in a tasteful restaurant who asks a customer, "Okay, what's it going to be, Bud?"

If one is attempting to test the social aspects of language, then one must deal with certain complications: How does one measure appropriateness in an oral test? If the test is an interview, then obviously, it will measure only one level of appropriateness—the formal one. Most languages demand that when a student converses with a teacher, the student should speak formally. In this case, one lacks information about the examinee's informal oral ability. If the test is a discussion among several students, then one lacks information about formal oral ability. To measure the functional variety that a person controls, one might use role plays. Then, however, one must rely on the examinees' ability to act or to pretend. Some might consider this ability to be a function of personality that would vary widely from person to person.

To summarize, in proficiency testing, defining the trait to be tested and providing methods for measuring that trait prove to be extremely difficult.

Achievement Testing

In achievement testing, the trait being tested is the learning that has taken place during some course of study. If one is doing an oral test, trouble arises from the fact that whereas learning has taken place, it may not have reached a level at which it can be demonstrated in the test.

Let us suppose that learning vocabulary is a principle focus in a course. To discuss what vocabulary knowledge entails I will use the definition proposed by Faerch, Haastrup and Phillipson (1984). They propose that vocabulary knowledge is "a continuum between ability to make sense of a word and ability to activate the word automatically for productive purposes" (p. 100). At one end of the continuum is the ability to guess at a word's meaning given the proper context. At the other end is the ability to use a given vocabulary item in the same way as a native speaker. At any given time, a learner's knowledge of a given vocabulary item exits somewhere along this continuum. Therefore, one can distinguish many degrees of knowledge: the ability to recognize a word out of context; the ability to recall a word, but without knowing the way it patterns; the ability to recall a word with the proper way it patterns; and so on.

Viewing vocabulary learning along a continuum in this manner raises the question of whether an oral test can properly measure the learning that occurs over a semester, a relatively short period of time. An oral test requires that the examinee recall items instantaneously. Also it requires that examinees have built up the target language semantics of the item. Even though examinees may fail to recall a needed vocabulary item, it does not follow that they have learned nothing of that item.

I have used the example of vocabulary learning, but the argument extends to any other area of language learning. The semester in Japan is twelve or thirteen weeks long. If we assume that students spend three to five hours a week with English, that represents only thirty-six to seventy hours a semester. This is insufficient time to show advancement in the abilities that can be measured in an oral test. Learning may have taken place, but not enough to be demonstrated in an oral test situation.

Alternatives

As stated in the first section on testing basics, the real problem in test construction is ensuring the receipt of sufficient, interpretable information about the examinees. What is the level of proficiency of these students? What have they learned during this past semester? What are areas in my teaching I need to change? Do not need to change? What are the students doing wrong? Doing right? Can I make the students study harder if I give them a test? These are some of the questions that teachers might try to answer by administering a test. However, it has been the contention of this paper that oral tests cannot provide precise answers to these questions. How then can one answer them?

One answer is just to recognize that the scores on an oral test lack precision and proceed accordingly, with cautious and qualified interpretations and conclusions. After all, as was argued above, people usually own watches that are less accurate than the atomic ones used for scientific work. One trouble with taking this way out is the students. They lack knowledge about the imprecision of much of the testing enterprise, and may believe that tests are absolutely true. An outgrowth in Japan of such ignorance about testing is the *hensachi* (standardized scores) phenomenon, in which standardized scores drive much of the educational enterprise. This phenomenon has come to have an undue influence in education.

An alternate answer might be to administer an oral test along with other means of evaluation, which might include not only the more traditional paper-and-pencil methods of testing (multiple choice, fill-in), but also newer, open-ended methods as detailed in Carroll and Hall (1985). Or one might try what this writer has. I have administered simulations as oral tests and had the students self-evaluate their performances. Ultimately, the questions that a teacher wants to answer will determine the type of test.

Conclusion

It has been the contention of this paper that oral tests, which many teachers in Japan administer, fail to provide sufficient information to answer basic questions about either students' communicative abilities or their progress during a course of study. First, definitions of communicative ability are too vague to allow any meaningful measurement. This condition obtains whether one is using scholarly, theoretical constructs to justify one's curriculum or whether one is using common-sense definitions of communicative ability. Second, the oral test by nature is insensitive to minor gains in ability that accrue during a short amount of time. Teachers would do better to establish what questions they want to answer about their students or teaching and then to find a mix of ways to answer those questions. □

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BRIGHT IDEA

Bunraku: Japanese Puppets and English as a Second Language

David Wardell

Theater has long been regarded as an effective medium for developing second language skills. Richard Via, for example, has used his New York theatrical experiences to create opportunities for his students to produce plays while studying English as a foreign language. Other teachers of English have reported similar success using drama in their language classrooms (Schmidt, 1977; Olivares, 1977; Holden, 1981; Carlson, 1982; Maley & Duff, 1982; San Jose & Villarroel, 1983; Smith, 1984; Hughes, 1985; Davenport, 1986; Dresser & Parrish, 1988).

Puppetry may be one of the most inspiring ways of bringing language learning and theatrical productions together. Puppet plays can help in reducing students' inhibitions while providing an opportunity for language practice to occur within meaningful contexts.

Gear and Gear (1986) rightly point out that learning activities such as puppet plays "that are not overtly pedagogic promote variety and naturalness in language while developing conversational and linguistic skills" (p. 38). Manuel Cuenca and Fernandez Carmona (1987) argue:

> As the student identifies with the puppet, he is able to speak without feeling shy or insecure, because the demand of the puppet to come alive through his voice dissipates the student's fear of being ridiculous. (p. 42)

Unozawa (1987) mentions that the interaction between characters in a play requires students to use levels of speech that might otherwise be ignored in traditional language lessons.

Because of my own lingering interest in the theater and because of exciting experiences I have had while attending the puppet plays of Southeast Asia and Japan, I thought it might be interesting to link these Eastern traditions with a puppet performance using an English script. An opportunity presented itself during the Nineteenth Annual LIOJ Summer Workshop for Japanese Teachers of English which was held in Odawara, Japan from August 9-14, 1987. The purpose of this paper is to explain the LIOJ Workshop presentation for the benefit of other teachers who might be interested in staging similar puppet shows in their own English classes.

The LIOJ Summer Workshop attracts Japanese teachers of English throughout Japan who hope to enrich their language teaching abilities while improving their own linguistic skills. These are dedicated language teachers who spend one week of their personal time in professional development. Twelve participants in this LIOJ Workshop agreed to develop a puppet play using *bunraku* theatrical techniques. One could hardly hope for a more receptive group to carry out this experiment.

Bunraku, a form of classical theater in Japan, uses puppets that are two-thirds life-size to act out stories. The stories are recited

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by a narrator and are accompanied by the *shamisen*, a stringed instrument. Usually, each puppet is manipulated by three puppeteers dressed entirely in black. Although these puppeteers remain in full view of the audience, spectators are expected to consider them invisible. *Bunraku* puppets do not speak in the way Western puppets do; the narrator, a skilled story-teller, changes his voice to fit each of the characters in the drama.

For the LIOJ Workshop production several major changes were made to standard *bunraku* conventions. First, each of our puppets had only one puppeteer who spoke the lines of his or her character. The narrator related the basic story line, supplying information about time, place, and general details. However, the narrator did not supply any of the dialogue. Furthermore, no musical background was included because we lacked both time and talent to organize this feature. However, for those interested in a more elaborate performance, a guitar accompaniment might effectively simulate the *shamisen*.

Our *bunraku* script evolved from the retelling of *Taro Thumb*, a traditional Japanese fairy tale which has a plot similar to *Tom Thumb* by the Grimm brothers.

After the members of the cast prepared an English version of this fairy tale, the different characters and scenes were defined. Some license was taken in adapting the story to our specific needs. For instance, in the original tale there is only one monster, but in order to let everyone have a role, three monsters were written into the script.

The characters within a scene joined together to write the dialogue appropriate to that stage of the story. This division of labor allowed one major task to be completed in an efficient manner, with everyone holding a shared ownership in the final script. Moreover, it also allowed topical allusions significant to both cast and audience to be included. For example, the puppet for the princess was controlled by a teacher who was in her eighth month of pregnancy; her frequent observations about being overweight caused great hilarity during the final production.

In fact, defining the personality of the characters proved to be one of the most interesting parts of this project. Take the monsters, for instance. What does a monster say? A few hideous roars might serve, but the group decided that our monsters should represent demented English students. This is the reason their speeches are filled with the kinds of English phrases so often encountered in pedantic classrooms.

The puppets themselves were two-dimensional figures painted on cardboard cut from large packing cartons. Even though the arms and legs did not move as traditional *bunraku* puppets' do, they were designed on the conventional two-thirds scale. Scenery and props were also painted on pieces of cardboard.

During the presentation of *Taro Thumb*, the stage consisted of three tables placed end-to-end. The puppeteers stood behind these tables and were in full view of the audience as their characters performed. The narrator stood to one side and added details necessary to link the various parts of the story together.

The LIOJ *bunraku* production of *Taro Thumb* was a great success. The participants successfully communicated a Japanese cultural event to the audience in English. The demands of puppet manipulation allowed the players to overcome personal shyness and speak English before the audience. Finally, the production provided an opportunity for the cast to use English in a creative and fun atmosphere.

I have included the script of *Taro Thumb* to help other English teachers get started in creating *bunraku* performances of their own.

Taro Thumb

Scene 1

NARRATOR: Once upon a time, many, many years ago, an old man and an old woman lived together in a small cottage near a forest. Although they loved one another very much, they had never been able to have a child.

OLD MAN: Our life here is very lonely.

OLD WOMAN: How I wish we had a child! I wish God would give us a lovely baby.

OLD MAN: Well, I must work. I am going to the mountain to cut some bamboo.

OLD WOMAN: While you are away, I'll go to the river and wash our clothes.

Scene 2

NARRATOR: When the old man reached the bamboo forest, he found one stalk of bamboo which had a light shining around its base.

OLD MAN: Oh, how strange! Look how this bamboo is shining. I'll go and cut it!

[*He cuts a stalk of bamboo. When the top of the bamboo is removed, a baby boy appears.*]

Wow! What a lovely baby! I'm going to take him home. My wife will be very glad.

Scene 3

NARRATOR: The old man returned to his home with the baby and explained to his wife what had happened.

OLD MAN: Guess what happened! I found this baby when I was cutting bamboo on the mountain.

OLD WOMAN: Oh, how cute! Let's adopt him as our son.

OLD MAN: What shall we name him?

OLD WOMAN: Let's call him Taro.

NARRATOR: Although the old man and the old woman called the baby Taro, everyone else called him Taro Thumb because he was only as tall as a thumb, and because he never grew any larger.

Scene 4

NARRATOR: Several years later, Taro Thumb decided to go to Kyoto, the ancient capital of Japan. He wanted to make this trip because he wanted to become a samurai.

TARO: Mother and Father, will you listen to my resolution? I'm going to go to Kyoto to become a brave samurai.

OLD WOMAN: Oh, my dear!

OLD MAN: Go for it, and come back to be a brave samurai.

OLD WOMAN: How will you travel to Kyoto?

TARO: Please give me a rice bowl. I can use it for a boat. And give me a chopstick. That will make a good oar for rowing.

OLD MAN: How will you protect yourself?

TARO: Please give me a needle. I can use a needle as a sword.

OLD WOMAN: Here is the rice bowl, the chopstick, and the needle. Take care of yourself, my son.

OLD MAN: I know you will return as a brave samurai. Good-bye.

TARO: Good-bye. Good-bye.

OLD WOMAN: Good-bye and good luck.

Scene 5

NARRATOR: Taro took his rice bowl to the river and started his journey to Kyoto.

[*Blue streamers held at each end of the stage create a river while Taro sits in his rice bowl and sings. Two Fish join Taro in his song.*]

TARO AND FISH:

Row, row, row your boat,
Gently down the stream.
Merrily, merrily, merrily,
Life is but a dream.

NARRATOR: It took Taro seven days to sail to Kyoto.

[*A figure holding a sun in one hand and a* *moon in the other appears and revolves.*]

SUN/MOON: One day. Two days. Three days. Four days. Five days. Six days. Seven days!

Scene 6

NARRATOR: Taro reached Kyoto and got out of his rice bowl under Gojo Bridge. He began to walk around the city, and he listened to the people he met.

TARO: Oh, here I am! What a big city Kyoto is!

[*A Farmer enters.*]

FARMER: Wow! So this is Kyoto. It is a lot different from my little farm. Look at all these buildings and the wide streets. It's fantastic! It's so exciting to have time to spend my holiday here. But it is a little strange that there are no people anywhere. At this hour of the day there should be a lot of people in the streets, but I don't see anyone. I wonder where they are?

Scene 7

NARRATOR: When Taro came to a shrine, he overheard some of the people there talking about a gang of goblins who had recently moved into the neighborhood.

FARMER: What's wrong in Kyoto? You are the first person I have seen since I arrived here.

FISH DEALER: It's terrible what is happening. Everyone is afraid.

[*A Woman with a crying baby enters.*]

FISH DEALER: Your baby is screaming. What happened?

WOMAN: Well, my poor little boy. Don't cry. Be a good baby. Yesterday we came to the shrine as usual, and right after we arrived, a group of goblins came and threatened us.

FARMER: Goblins!

WOMAN: I was scared to death, but luckily we managed to escape. My baby was shocked, and now he starts crying whenever he sees a funny face.

FISH DEALER: That's terrible. But listen to what happened to me. The goblins appeared in my shop yesterday. Look at this bucket. Nothing in it. The goblins took all the fish and ate them up. What am I going to do? How can I earn any money?

FARMER: Goblins! So that's the reason there aren't any people around here.

FISH DEALER: If they see us on the street, the goblins will hurt us or they might even kill us. I'm frightened to death.

WOMAN: Gion Festival's just around the corner, but I'm afraid we won't have it this year because of the goblins. We'd better go home quickly and lock the door.

Scene 8

NARRATOR: But before the townspeople could reach their homes, three goblins entered the shrine and scared the innocent people of Kyoto.

GREEN GOBLIN: This is a pen. HA HA HA HA HA.

RED GOBLIN: What is your name? HA HA HA HA HA.

BLUE GOBLIN: Today is Friday. HA HA HA HA HA.

WOMAN: Oh, how terrible. Run! Run!

FISH DEALER: Get away from me! Oh, I'm so afraid.

FARMER: Help! Help!

GREEN GOBLIN: He walks to school every day. HA HA HA HA HA.

RED GOBLIN: Where are you from? HA HA HA HA HA.

BLUE GOBLIN: What time is it? HA HA HA HA HA.

[*The townspeople run away.*]

All GOBLINS [*singing*]:

A, B, C, D, E, F, G,
H, I, J, K, L, M, N, O, P....
HA HA HA HA HA.

Scene 9

NARRATOR: Now our hero Taro Thumb was determined to take action.

TARO: This is a pretty pickle! I'm not afraid of these evil goblins. I'm going to fight them and save the people of Kyoto. It's high time I proved that I'm a brave man.

Scene 10

NARRATOR: The next day a beautiful princess came to the shrine to worship.

PRINCESS: What a beautiful day it is, and what a beautiful princess I am! Many people always praise me for my attractive smile, my long black hair, and my white skin. But I have never received a marriage proposal. I wonder why? Maybe it's because of my weight. Recently I've been getting heavier and heavier—just like a pregnant woman. Today I'm going to worship and if my prayers are answered, I'll be able to lose some weight and then meet the man of my dreams. [*She prays.*] God, please help me have firm thighs and a thin waist. And if possible, send me a handsome, well-built young man with money who can be my husband.

Scene 11

NARRATOR: The goblins, who had been waiting for a victim, suddenly appeared.

GREEN GOBLIN: Go, went, gone. Come, came, come.

RED GOBLIN: Eat, ate, eaten. Drink, drank, drunk.

BLUE GOBLIN: See, saw, seen. Take, took, taken.

PRINCESS [*back to Goblins*]: Oh God, thank you very much for answering my prayers so quickly. I didn't think you'd send me a husband so soon. [*She turns and sees the Goblins.*] Oh! What is this? Help! Help!

GREEN GOBLIN: Linking verbs! Is, are, was, were. HA HA HA HA HA.

RED GOBLIN: Seem, look, become, appear. HA HA HA HA HA.

BLUE GOBLIN: Feel, taste, smell, sound. HA HA HA HA HA.

Scene 12

NARRATOR: Taro Thumb heard the princess' calls for help. He came running, drew his needle sword, and jumped onto each of the goblins, stabbing them many times.

TARO: Oh, dear princess, do not worry. I will protect you. Hey, you wicked goblins. Take that! And that! And that! [*He stabs the Goblins.*]

ALL GOBLINS:

A—E—I—O—U
A—E—I—O—U
L—I—O—J ! ! !

[*They depart.*]

Scene 13

NARRATOR: Because the goblins were surprised by Taro, they ran away leaving all their possessions behind.

TARO: My dear princess, are you all right?

PRINCESS: How nice of you to help me. [*Aside*] But I'm sorry the man who helped me is not so well-built. In fact, he's smaller than a dwarf. In any case, I ought to do something to express my gratitude.

NARRATOR: Just then, the princess found a magic mallet among the things the goblins had left behind.

PRINCESS: Oh, what's this? [*She picks up the mallet.*] This must be a magic mallet which can make dreams come true. Oh good! I'd really like to use it to lose some weight, but before I do that, I need to ask it to do something for you.

[*She shakes the mallet over Taro.*]

Magic mallet, magic mallet,
Can you make my hero taller?

NARRATOR: Suddenly Taro began to change. Every time the princess shook the mallet, Taro grew taller and taller.

[*Taro grows as tall as the Princess.*]

PRINCESS: Oh, wonderful. He's growing larger and larger. I don't have to lose any weight since I've found this handsome man to marry.

TARO: Wow! I'm the handsomest guy in the world!

Scene 14

NARRATOR: Taro took the princess to meet his parents, and everyone in the country celebrated their marriage. And of course, they lived happily ever after.

[*All characters appear and sing.*]

Row, row, row your boat
Gently down the stream.
Merrily, merrily, merrily, merrily,
Life is but a dream. □

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BRIGHT IDEA

It is an important skill for second-language learners.
It is used to talk around unknown vocabulary.
The five-step paradigm is an example of this skill.
Patterns that can be used include classification, purpose, and cause and effect, among others.
It is a plan of action for making ideas and concepts comprehensible.

[Explanation Strategies]

Carl Watts

Explanation strategies is an important skill for ESL students to acquire. It is a system that can be utilized by students to describe and explain ideas or concepts they need to use at unforeseen moments and for which they do not possess the appropriate English lexical tags. It is a method by which students can learn to talk through unanticipated circumstances, instead of remaining mute because they lack certain vocabulary.

It is impossible for second-language speakers, regardless of their level, to master all the vocabulary they need in every context. For this reason, learning to "talk around" unknown lexical items through the use of explanation strategies is important. Explanation strategies is not, however, an automatically learned device/strategy. Therefore, any time spent in the language classroom helping students learn explanation strategies is time well spent—it will increase students' awareness, confidence, and fluency.

The specific goals in providing instruction in explanation strategies include providing students with core utterances they can use for basic descriptions, allowing students sufficient practice time so that they can experiment with the strategies and learn how to be successful "strategists," providing a means with which new classroom vocabulary can be introduced without reference to the primary language, and giving students an enjoyable and realistic appreciation for the usage of these strategies.

Method

Step One:

Students are first introduced to explanation strategies through basic descriptions involving classification; purpose; comparison and contrast; material; structure; cause and effect; examples; shape, size, and color; and origin. Depending on the level of the students, these different categories of explanation strategies can be presented over a few or many days.

Examples of basic explanation strategy sentences for the first group—classification—are:

_________ is a method/means of __________.

Brainstorming	creating new ideas
Dry cleaning	cleaning clothes without water
Canning	preserving foods
Homogenization	making liquids uniform
Boiling	sterilization

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_______________ is a _______________.

Physics	science
A squirrel	mammal
A pomegranate	fruit
Geometry	field of mathematics
Teaching	profession

_____ is a variety/type/kind/form of _____.

Football	sport
Mashed potatoes	food
An ambulance	vehicle
A reptile	animal
Bacteria	plant life

_____________ include _______________.

Romance languages	Spanish, Portuguese
U.S. territories	Micronesia, Puerto Rico
Medical procedures	surgery, prevention
Arts	painting, sculpting
Fuels	gasoline, diesel

Samples of other basic explanation strategy patterns, by category, are:

1. Purpose:
   A pencil *is used for* writing.
   A ruler *is used to* measure.
   A dictionary *is used by* people *to* look up words.
   Radio *has* two *main purposes*: entertaining people and communicating information.

2. Comparison and Contrast:
   A pigeon *is similar to* a dove.
   The Kanto region *is different from* the Kansai region.
   A computer monitor *looks like* a television.
   A tangerine *tastes like* an orange.
   A frog *sounds like* a toad.

3. Material:
   Glass *is made from* sand.
   A book *is made of* paper.

4. Structure:
   A table has two *main parts*: the legs and the top.
   Water *consists of* hydrogen and oxygen.

5. Cause and Effect:
   Dew *is caused by* condensation.
   Beer *is a result of* the fermentation of grains.

6. Example:
   Tokyo *is an example of* a city.
   An example of a disease *is* malaria.

7. Shape, Size, and Color:
   A can *is* cylindrical.
   A 747 *is* huge.
   Tatami mats *are* tan.

8. Origin:
   Buddhism *originated in* India.
   Velcro *was created in* the United States.
   The printing press *was developed in* Germany.
   Tobacco *came from* America.
   Gun powder *was invented in* China.

For lower level and ability students, the basic descriptions may be introduced through audiolingual methodology: repetition drills, substitution drills, completion drills, and transformation drills. The descriptions may also be introduced through a situational development presentation, where the teacher provides the item and the situation through which the basic utterances can be practiced. For example:

T: What do I have?
Ss: You have a saw.
T: What am I doing?
Ss: You are cutting wood.
T: What is a saw used for?
Ss: A saw is used for cutting wood.

For higher level and ability students, the simple reinforcement of previously-learned structures may be sufficient. This can be accomplished by providing a hand-out patterned after the classification explanation strategy examples above. For an advanced group, students would not be required to merely repeat or read given utterances. They would use their knowledge from other fields to complete the multiple-slot substitutions. Unlike the examples listed above, student handouts would *not* have the two slots paired correctly. Instead, the students would have to think about the choices instead of merely reading. As an alternative, the above examples may be used as completion drills, merely by deleting the second slot choices. Note, however, that as with all correctly structured substitution drills and completion drills, the key element is used repeatedly.

Vocabulary used would be appropriate for the level of the students.

Step Two:

At this stage, after the explanation strategies categories listed above have been practiced and mastered, students are given some examples of five-step explanations. These five-step explanations include all the various types of strategies, and are as linguistically simple or sophisticated as is required by the needs of the student population. The five-step explanation begins with a general category which is further delimited by each additional statement. For instance:

It's an animal.
It's from Africa.
It has four legs.
It looks like a horse.
It has stripes.
[A zebra]

This is a word which describes a type of person.
This word refers to a lack of learning in a certain academic area.
A person who has this characteristic probably did not go to school.
This kind of person usually cannot sign his own name.
This adjective refers to a person who is unable to read or write.
[Illiterate]

These examples should be given in the spirit of a guessing game, and any attempts by the students to hazard answers should be positively reinforced. Students enjoy the problems; ten to fifteen examples seems to be an appropriate amount.

At this point the students are given paired practice in which they are allowed to use any and all of the above strategies to explain words to their partners. In this exercise, students are paired—Student A with Student B—and each student is given a different list of words to explain to his partner. One example of an explanation strategy paired practice would be:

Student A

1. Mathematics	1. ________________
2. Director	2. ________________
3. Newspaper	3. ________________
4. Cost effective	4. ________________
5. Factory	5. ________________

Student B

1. Calculator	1. ________________
2. Fax	2. ________________
3. Government	3. ________________
4. Relocation	4. ________________
5. Communism	5. ________________

The column of words represents those words which the student is to explain to his partner using explanation strategies. The column of numbers and lines is for the student to use in writing down those words he guesses correctly from the explanations offered by his partner. Student A may give all his explanations while Student B guesses; or each student may give explanations for his first word while his partner guesses, and then continue to the second word, switching roles after each word. Depending on the level and abilities of the students, each student would receive between five and ten words in his list.

"*Step Two*"—ten to fifteen examples followed by paired practice—will most likely have to be practiced several/many times. While the teacher provides five-step explanation strategy examples before each paired practice activity, students are allowed to experiment with their own explanation devices at their own levels. Some students will give only one explanation strategy utterance and then wait for their partners to answer, merely saying NO after an incorrect answer has been given and offering no further explanations. Some students will give one explanation structure after another, not allowing their partners sufficient time to process the information or give an answer. Most students, given the opportunity for failing and succeeding in their attempts at explanation strategies, will discover by themselves that the basic five-step pattern works. This self-discovery consistently produces a much better internalization of the strategies than does an imposed or prescribed formula.

The teacher monitors student explanations during this paired practice activity.

Step Three:

After students have become more sophisticated in their use of explanation strategies, classroom vocabulary, as it appears in the curriculum, is explained following the five-step paradigm. This is initially done by the teacher. When the students reach the point where they are comfortable with this explanation strategy procedure for new vocabulary, they are asked to write explanations for new lexical items. These explanations are shared with the class. If these explanations are collected by the teacher, they can be a valuable tool to use as review during the odd few moments at the end of a study period.

Using these explanation strategies for vocabulary development offers good reinforcement of the basic patterns and is a good alternative to the *dictionary definition* or *translation* syndrome.

Step Four:

As a review of the basic explanation strategy patterns and as a fun reinforcing activity, an explanation strategies game can be devised by the teacher. The game entails a competition between student groups—Groups A and B. The previously prepared five-step explanation strategy statements are read one by one. These may be new items prepared by the teacher, or they may be the explanations collected by the teacher in "*Step Three*." Guessing should be encouraged in the competition. Student Al responds to the first statement, Student Bl responds to the second, Student A2 responds to the third, Student B2 responds to the fourth, and Student A3 responds to the fifth statement of Problem One. Student B3 responds to the first statement of Problem Two, etc. When a student responds correctly, his team receives the designated number of points: A first statement correct response equals five points, a second statement correct response equals four points, a third statement correct response equals three points, a fourth statement correct response equals two points, and a fifth statement correct response equals one point. As soon as a student responds correctly, the teacher continues on with the next problem, but following the same student sequence. The team with the higher number of points after a specified number of problems or a specified time wins.

Examples of items in an explanation strategies game are:

1. It's a portable object. (5)
   It's used to help you see. (4)
   It uses batteries. (3)
   It is often cylindrical. (2)
   It has a light bulb. (1)
   [A flashlight]

2. It's a chemical compound. (5)
   It can be found in most houses. (4)
   It is white. (3)
   It is commonly found in the kitchen and in the dining room. (2)
   We use it on food. (1)
   [Salt]

3. Everyone does this. (5)
   It is a mental phenomenon. (4)
   It happens mostly at night. (3)
   Some people do it in color; some people do it in black and white. (2)
   It happens during REM sleep. (1)
   [Dream/dreaming]

Conclusion

The pedagogical value of explanation strategies is apparent. Study time required for its usage is minimal. The students must actively participate in the paired practice activities. The students themselves enjoy writing the five-step explanations and figuring out those of other students, taking them as puzzles that offer a challenge. Both students and the instructor enjoy the fun reinforcement activity when students suddenly telegraph their understanding of the problems and it all becomes apparent: *You* know that *they* know the idea or concept being explained, even if they don't know the correct English lexical tag. It's serendipitous—for both the students and the teacher. ☐

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N D BAKER & P M GREENFIELD (USA), The Development of new and old information in young children's early language.
A NINIO (Israel), The roots of narrative: disussing recent events with very young children.
S HARKNESS (USA), The cultural construction of semantic cotingency in mother-child speech.
M TOMASELLO (USA), The role of joint attentional processes in early language development.
J M BOHANNAN III & A W LEUBECKER (USA), Recent development in speech to children: we've come a long way, baby-talk.
S A KUCZA II & R H BORYS (USA), The overgeneralization of morphological forms as a function of experience.
C PYE (USA), Towards an anthropology of language acquisition.
E L NEWPORT (USA), Constraints on learning and their role in language acquisition: studies of the acquisitiion of American sign language.
J VORSTER (South Africa), Paraphrasing: extending the data base for child language research.
F C C PENG (Japan), On the acquisition of discourse among autistic children.
B G BLOUNT (USA), Cognition and phonology in acquisition of plurals and possessives by Luo children.

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BOOK REVIEWS

Learning to Learn English. Gail Ellis and Barbara Sinclair. Cambridge University Press, 1989.

Reviewed by Kim Edwards

Over the last two decades educational professionals in U.S. universities have begun to take a close look at how people study. Their goal has been to determine why students of similar ability don't necessarily have the same rate of success in their academic courses. What they have discovered is that a variety of factors, ranging from organizational strategies to time management, influence learning and retention: It's not intelligence alone that yields academic success.

Proponents of study skills argue that even the best students can learn to study more efficiently, and that the worst students may find their performance greatly enhanced by a careful examination of the way they approach learning. Numerous texts have been written to guide students who wish to streamline their learning processes. Some universities have even gone so far as to offer complete courses in study skills to incoming freshmen. As an instructor in one of these programs at the University of Wisconsin, I was able to witness firsthand the improvement students made when they reappraised their study techniques and took control of their own learning.

In their book *Learning to Learn English*, Gail Ellis and Barbara Sinclair have taken a study skills approach to ESL. Designed to be used as a companion to any language text, *Learning to Learn English* devotes its first chapter to helping students build personality profiles of themselves as language learners. Instead of teaching particular grammatical points or functions, Ellis and Sinclair start with an attitude questionnaire and proceed to raise the issues of priorities, motivation, time management, strengths, weaknesses, and organization. Students will enjoy figuring out their language profiles, but the chapter is intended to be more than fun. The questions are designed to draw students' attention to their attitudes about learning languages, and to raise issues that they may never have considered. Everyone knows, of course, that cramming is not an effective learning strategy, especially for long-term retention. Recognizing it as a problematic habit, however, and learning specific, concrete ways to balance time for language study with other demands, is less easily done. In the first chapter Ellis and Sinclair address these issues in a general way, and establish the foundation for the rest of the book.

Learning to Learn English has six divisions which are organized in a familiar way: Vocabulary, Grammar, Listening, Speaking, Reading, and Writing. Each chapter is further divided into steps. Steps One through Three

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focus on a self-assessment of the particular skill area. Students are asked to explore their current knowledge and feelings about this area of language study, and to identify their own strengths and weaknesses. Step Four is designed to help students set reasonable goals, and Step Five is aimed at helping students develop personal strategies for studying the language area. This is the section of the book that students will find most helpful, as it suggests specific methods to enhance learning. Step Six addresses the issue of confidence, and includes ideas for increasing communicative ability despite recognized limits. Finally, in Step Seven, students are asked to organize the study strategies they have chosen or developed themselves.

In reading this book I appreciated the fact that Ellis and Sinclair are not prescriptive in their advice. Quotes from real students appear in each chapter. As a language learner myself, I enjoyed reading the comments other people had made—their frustrations and advice and opinions—and comparing them with my own experiences. A beginning language learner would be reassured to find that other people also have problems with grammar, and would be pleased to discover study suggestions that improve retention and class enjoyment.

Moreover, the students quoted are from all over the world, and their opinions about language learning vary widely. Everyone quoted has different suggestions about how to make learning English easier and more successful. The authors recognize that there's no *right* way to learn English, anymore than there's a *right* way to read a book or write a letter. This distinction is especially important for students and teachers of ESL to recognize, as the diversity of cultural and educational backgrounds found in a single ESL classroom can be wide.

Since *Learning to Learn English* is designed to be a companion text, some teachers might question its value. Much of the content seems like common sense to those of us who have taught for years. However, it's worth remembering that our own study habits have developed through years of trial and error; strategies that seem like common sense to us may enhance learning in our students. This is especially true for situations where classes are composed of students from many different countries. Different cultures have different approaches to learning, and different attitudes about it. *Learning to Learn English* provides a catalyst for discussing those differences, and offers strategies for maximizing strengths and minimizing weaknesses. Ellis and Sinclair make it clear that each individual will have a personal learning style. It is not the purpose of this book to define it, but to guide the student to self-discovery. □

The Cambridge English Course, Book 2. Michael Swan and Catherine Walter. Cambridge University Press, 1988.

Reviewed by Robert Ruud

Cambridge English Course, Book 2 is a multifaceted set of materials including a Student's Book, a Teacher's Book, and an audio cassette. The materials comprise thirty-two units, which are based on notions (The Past, Comparisons, If and When, Causes and Origins, etc.), functions (Asking and Offering, Hopes and Wishes, Small Talk, Feelings, etc.), situations (Know Before You Go, Travel, etc.) and topics (Problems, Families, Money, Technology, etc.).

I am currently using the book in a course that meets once a week. The students are lower intermediate: They can have conversations, but with some difficulty. They are all Japanese, and range in age from twenty-two to fifty.

The purpose of the text in my course is to provide a basic framework and to serve as a review source for communicative activities based on information provided by the students. I have found *Cambridge English Course, Book 2* to be extremely well-suited to this purpose.

In the plus column, what first comes to mind is the handy format of the lessons. Each unit has two parts. Part A consists of up to ten sections with standard exercises such as *Listen to the conversation and practice the sentences, Match the questions and answers, Here are some answers—what are the questions, Pronunciation—Listen to the recording—Do you hear A or B?*, etc. The instructions are generally clear, and the exercises are short and involve the use of many different skills. I ask the students do them as homework in order to get the basic structures of the area in focus before they put their own information into the structures in the class itself. Because the units are concise, they are easily used as bases for more communicative activities in which the information is student-generated.

There is good variation from one unit to another in terms of activities. At the same time, units are consistent in always offering some listening, speaking, reading, grammar, and pronunciation exercises. They are also usually focused enough to give real expression to the notion, function or other syllabus item for that unit.

Some of the stories are genuinely interesting, such as the story of Juliana Koepke, who fell 3000 feet and then battled the jungle for ten days. This unit also contains some examples of the best exercises in the course, including one on basic verb forms, an important one teaching questions for clarification, including "Sorry, could you say that again?" and "I'm sorry, I don't understand," and a *Now You Do It* exercise.

Another positive point is that it is very easy to skip over sections of any unit, or even to skip entire units of the book if that seems appropriate. Also, the units can be done in any order. This line of praise can easily be taken too far, of course; one starts to wonder what the authors' assumptions are about how language is learned. But for either the unabashed eclectic nihilist unconvinced of any but the most all-encompassing theoretical model of

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Robert Ruud is the Director of the Language Institute of Japan. He has taught in Japan, Polynesia, and the U.S. He frequently publishes articles and book reviews in Cross Currents.

language learning, or for the teacher who prefers to use the text as preparation for and review of communicative activities, this text is well-suited.

The materials are conveniently offered in two different formats for teachers to choose between: either with all units bound in one volume, or in three separate slim volumes. This latter option has worked well in my course, since the course itself is divided into ten-session units.

The authors say they have tried to avoid a picture of Britain as "a middle-aged (or youthful) white middle-class society of married couples with 2.4 children per family," and have rather successfully done so. For the springboard kind of purpose the book is being put to in my class, the lack of a story sequence or thematic link is an advantage.

On the negative side, some of the exercises seem rather pointless and technical, such as the numerous minimal pair exercises presented without reference to context. This is not to say that pronunciation has no place in this book. However, with the stories or situations already presented in listening or reading form, and with considerable space devoted to illustrations, pronunciation practice could very easily have been done with more reference to the context.

Some of the contexts themselves are banal, such as in the comparison unit, where the comparison is first of two kitchens, and then of the differences between baby carriages, tanks, and the Concord. The story with pictures in Unit 2 was difficult for my students even to take seriously enough to have fun with. It describes and illustrates a BBC reporter's eye witness account of a UFO landing at a soccer game. The reporter documents the event, and is finally blasted with a ray gun as he dutifully reports, "It's taking out a gun—it's pointing it at me."

This illustrates another occasional problem in this book, which is caused by writers who try too hard to force a grammatical form into use. The so-called "progressive" form in the story of the BBC reporter is used to describe an activity taking place simultaneous with the speech itself. Among native speakers this is uncommon; if we listen to a real sports event and take a count of the progressive forms used to describe simultaneous activity this is obvious. But among non-native speakers, who are taught to use it in this way, the progressive is frequently much more common, but misused and misunderstood.

Despite these shortcomings, *Cambridge English Course, Book 2* is generally a useful book in that it provides teachers with a very loose organization of ideas which they can supplement freely, and which can be reviewed systematically in the class or by students outside of class. It seems to me that sticking strictly to what the book offers would be pretty unpromising. But as the basic guiding force for a series of exercises tailored to the needs of a specific class, it works well, and is much appreciated by my students. □

PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

Publishers are invited to send copies of newly published materials to *Cross Currents*, LIOJ, 4-14-1 Shiroyama, Odawara, Kanagawa, Japan 250.

Books intended for review should be labelled REVIEW MATERIAL, and should include a cover letter explaining desired review procedures.

Cross Currents thanks publishers for the following recently received materials.

BOOKS

Ashworth, J., & Clark, J. (1989). *Stepping stones 2*. (Teacher's Book). London: William Collins Sons and Co., Ltd.

Dewar, P. (1989). *Computers: From beads to bytes*. Glasgow: Collins English Library.

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Homeshaw, J. (1989). *Love me tomorrow*. Glasgow: Collins English Library.

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Kitao, K., & Kitao, S.K. (1989). *Intercultural communication: Between Japan and the United States*. Tokyo: Eichosha Shinsha Co., Ltd.

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Maley, A., & Duff, A. (1989). *The inward ear: Poetry in the language classroom*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Maple, R. (1988). *New wave*. (Activity Books 1 & 2, Student's Books 1 & 2, Teacher's Resource Books 1 & 2). Essex: Longman Group U.K., Ltd.

Morris, S., & Stanton, A. (1989). *Test yourself for first certificate*. Walton-on-Thames: Thomas Nelson and Sons.

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JALT Journal, 11(1). (1989). Tokyo: Japan Association of Language Teachers.

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The Journal of Language for International Business, 3(1). (1988). Glendale, Arizona: American Graduate School of International Management.

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Mini-World, 4. (1989). Tokyo: Mini-World, Inc.

The Modern Language Journal, 73(2 & 3). (1989). Madison, Wisconsin: University of Wisconsin Press.

RELC Journal, 20(1). (1989). Singapore: SEAMEO Regional Language Centre.

The Teacher Trainer, 3(3). (1989). Canterbury, England: The Pilgrims English Language Courses. □

ANNOUNCEMENTS

IATEFL 24th International Conference. March 27-30, 1990. Trinity College, Dublin. Aspects of Irish literary tradition will be featured in this program. Programs will include presentations in the areas of Business English, CALL, ELT Management, Learner Independence, Literature, Phonology, Teacher Development, Teacher Trainers, Testing, and Video and Young Learners. For further information please write: IATEFL, 3 Kingsdown Chambers, Kingsdown Park, Tankerton, Whitstable, Kent, England CT5 2DJ.

Regional Language Centre (RELC) 1990 Regional Seminar. April 9-12, 1990. Singapore. Proposed topics for the seminar include: Language Testing, Language Programme Evaluation, and The Role of Language Testing in Language Programme Evaluation. RELC calls for papers and invites participants. For further information, please contact: Director, (Att: Seminar Secretariat), SEAMEO Regional Language Centre, 30 Orange Grove Road, Singapore 1025. Telephone: (65) 7379044.

Institute of Culture and Communication Summer Workshop. July 11-20, 1990. The East-West Center, Honolulu, Hawaii. The workshop is for college and university faculty who wish to develop courses in intercultural and international topics. Participants will examine possible texts, interact with East-West Center staff familiar with a variety of courses, discuss issues with the authors of texts currently used in intercultural courses, share ideas with each other, and develop full course outlines. The general areas within which courses can be developed are the Behavioral Sciences, Social Sciences, and Education. For more information write: Mr. Larry Smith or Dr. Richard Brislin, East-West Center, Institute of Culture and Communication, Honolulu, Hawaii 96848, U.S.A.

Eighth International Humor Conference. July 30-August 3, 1990. Sheffield, England. For more information, contact: Mark Lazier, Associate Dean, College of Arts and Sciences, Pan American University, Edinburg, TX 78539, U.S.A.

ESOL Video Materials Directory. TESOL has created a database of existing videos for EFL/ESL instruction and teacher training. Information about videos currently available worldwide may be obtained, or submitted for inclusion in the database, by contacting: Peter Thomas, Department of International Studies, University of California, Extension X-001, La Jolla, CA 92093-0176, U.S.A. Telephone: 619-534-0425.

New Journal and Call for Papers. The ESL teaching community and the Office of Academic Affairs of The City University of New York announce a new scholarly journal, ***College ESL***. *College ESL* will provide a unique forum for exploring questions and concerns regarding the education of English as a second language (ESL) students, specifically urban immigrant and refugee adults in college and pre-college settings. The journal welcomes articles and essays supported by research and theory on: Current instructional practices in ESL and related disciplines; Innovations in curriculum and pedagogy; Research studies; Teacher education and training; Culture, history, sociology, and anthropology of ESL populations; Relevant ethical, legal, and political issues. The first issue is scheduled for publication in Fall, 1990. Submissions are due February 10, 1990. Send for guidelines to Editor, *College ESL*, c/o The Instructional Resource Center, The City University of New York, 535 East 80th Street, New York, New York 10021, U.S.A.

New Journal and Call for Papers. The inaugural issue of the ***Journal of Asian Pacific Communication***, to be published by Multilingual Matters Ltd. (Clevedon, England/Philadelphia), is to appear in early 1990. This journal provides a forum for research on language issues and communication problems in the Asian Pacific region, and on linguistic and communication problems faced by Southeast Asian immigrants elsewhere in the world. The second and third volumes are to be guest edited by Florian Coulmas and Braj Kachru on *The economics of language in the Asian Pacific*, and *Language and identity*, respectively; deadlines for submissions are April 30, 1990 and December 1, 1990. For further information about subscriptions, the first issue, and guidelines for the above special issues, please write the Editors: Howard Giles, Communication Studies, University of California at Santa Barbara, CA 93106, U.S.A.; or Herbert Pierson, English Language Teaching Unit, The Chinese University of Hong Kong, Shatin, N.T., Hong Kong.

Call for Papers: ***Cross Currents*** welcomes manuscripts concerning all aspects of English language teaching and learning and cross-cultural communication. *Cross Currents* is interested in articles on both the theoretical and practical aspects of ESL/EFL instruction, cross-cultural communication, English language teaching both in Japan and internationally, English as an International Language, and book reviews on any of these topics. *Cross Currents* particularly encourages responses to this issue's editorial, *International TESOL: Where Is Our Profession Going?* for publication as a forum in a future issue. Please direct all manuscripts and letters to: General Editor, *Cross Currents*, 4-14-1 Shiroyama, Odawara, Kanagawa, Japan 250. □

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LIOJ

THE LANGUAGE INSTITUTE OF JAPAN
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LIOJ is a private organization supported by a not-for-profit educational foundation, the Zaidan Hojin M.R.A. House. The Institute was founded in the spring of 1968 as a small experimental school specializing in preparing Japanese to work or study abroad. LIOJ does this by offering intensive training in English and an experience dealing with non-Japanese in an English-only environment designed to promote cross-cultural communication and encounter. Besides the residential Business Communication Program, LIOJ offers language courses to the Odawara community for both adults and children through its Community Program, and a variety of special programs to individual organizations. LIOJ annually hosts a Summer Workshop for Japanese Teachers of English, and also sponsors fellowships and scholarships to overseas participants in the Business Communication Program and the Summer Workshop.

□ A primary goal at LIOJ has been that the LIOJ experience should be rewarding to both students and teachers alike. LIOJ's purposes as an institute extend basically in two directions: those which center on ways to serve the needs of Japan and the international scene at large; and those which center on maintaining a favorable teaching environment which is conducive to creativity and involvement in the field of language and cross-cultural training. These goals are by no means mutually exclusive: Making efforts in one direction often leads to successes in the other. LIOJ was instrumental in the establishment of the Japanese Association of Language Teachers (JALT) in 1975, and continues to be a supporter of the association. Many English language curriculum materials developed by members of the LIOJ faculty have been published internationally. Since 1972, LIOJ has published the widely respected journal of international communication, *Cross Currents*.

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□ With this program, LIOJ pioneered the intensive total-immersion business English/cultural training method which is common in Japan today. A total of 210 four-week terms have been offered since the program was begun in 1968. To date, 609 companies, both Japanese and international, have sent 5196 company personnel to participate in LIOJ's Business Programs. Approximately 60% of these participants have gone on to conduct business or receive training in foreign countries, while 40% use English while based in Japan.

□ In 1990, LIOJ will introduce two-week intensive Business English Programs, also specializing in total-immersion English language/cultural training. LIOJ will offer four two-week, and nine four-week Business Programs in 1990.

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The Community Program

☐ LIOJ's Community Program was begun in 1969. 700 students in the Odawara area are currently enrolled in the program. Classes serve the needs of a wide population, from elementary school students to adults. The Community Program also facilitates International Understanding classes in an ongoing team teaching project in Odawara public schools.

The Summer Workshop

☐ Every summer since 1969, LIOJ has hosted a Summer Workshop for Japanese Teachers of English. This week-long residential workshop includes language study, special lectures and programs, and seminars on a variety of teaching methods and techniques. In 1989, 130 Japanese teachers of English from all parts of Japan, six scholarship presenters from foreign institutions, and two scholarship presenters from within Japan participated in the workshop. The workshop also attracts many respected, internationally known presenters. Special guest presenters have included John Fanselow, Paul LaForge, Diane Larsen-Freeman, Robert O'Neill, Alan Maley, and Richard Via.

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☐ LIOJ is periodically called upon to give special programs or to conduct testing and evaluation for companies and organizations. In the past, LIOJ has conducted special programs for the Matsushita Institute of Government and Management, the Hakone Machi International Association, and the Odawara City English Program.

Fellowships and Scholarships

☐ In conjuction with long-term goals of improving language teaching in Japan and abroad, LIOJ provides fellowships and scholarships to teachers and students from foreign institutions. Fellowship and scholarship recipients come to LIOJ as assistants, observers, and students during regular Business Communication Programs. In addition, LIOJ invites scholarship presenters from foreign institutions, as well as from within Japan, to attend the Summer Workshop and share language teaching knowledge.

☐ LIOJ offered twenty fellowships and scholarships to foreign teachers and students in 1989. Fellowship and scholarship recipients in these programs have come from Thailand, Korea, the Philippines, the People's Republic of China, Indonesia, India, and Hong Kong.

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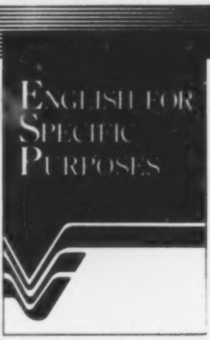
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